

drawn up for the faculty of arts at Paris in 1720, the *Method* and *Meditations* of Descartes were placed beside the *Organon* and the *Metaphysics* of Aristotle as text-books for philosophical study. And before 1725, readings, both public and private, were given from Cartesian texts in some of the Parisian colleges. But when this happened, Cartesianism was no longer either interesting or dangerous; its theories, taught as ascertained and verified truths, were as worthless as the systematic verbiage which preceded them. Already antiquated, it could not resist the wit and raillery with which Voltaire, in his *Lettres sur les Anglais* (1728), brought against it the principles and results of Locke and Newton. The old Cartesians, Mairan and especially Fontenelle, with his *Théorie des Tourbillons* (1752), struggled in vain to refute Newton by styling attraction an occult quality. Fortunately, the Cartesian method had already done its service, even where the theories were rejected. The Port Royalists, Nicole and Arnauld, had applied it to grammar and logic; Domat and Daguesseau to jurisprudence; Fontenelle, Perrault, and Terrasson to literary criticism, and a worthier estimate of modern literature. Though it never ceased to influence individual thinkers, it had handed on to Condillac its popularity with the masses. A Latin abridgment of philosophy, dated 1784, tells us that the innate ideas of Descartes are founded on no arguments, and are now universally abandoned. The ghost of innate ideas seems to be all that it had left.

In Germany a few Cartesian lecturers left their names at Leipsic and Halle, but the system took no root, any more than in Switzerland, where it had a brief reign at Geneva after 1669. In Italy the effects were more permanent. What is termed the iatro-mechanical school of medicine, with Borelli (1608–1679) as its most notable name, entered in a way on the mechanical study of anatomy suggested by Descartes, but was probably much more dependent upon the positive researches of Galileo. At Naples there grew up a Cartesian school, of which the best known members are Michel Angelo Fardella (1650–1708) and Cardinal Gerdil (1718–1802), both of whom, however, attached themselves to the characteristic views of Malebranche.

In England Cartesianism took but slight hold. Henry More, who had given it a modified sympathy in the lifetime of the author, became its opponent in later years; and Cadworth differed from it in most essential points. Antony Legrand, from Douay, attempted to introduce it into Oxford, but failed. He is the author of several works, amongst others a system of Cartesian philosophy, where a chapter on "Angels" revives the methods of the schoolmen. His chief opponent was Samuel Parker, bishop of Oxford, who, in his attack on the irreligious novelties of the Cartesian treats Descartes (such is the irony of history) as a fellow criminal in infidelity with Hobbes and Gassendi. Rohault's version of the Cartesian physics was translated into English; and Malebranche found an ardent follower in John Norris (1667–1711). Of Cartesianism towards the close of the 17th century the only remnants were an overgrown theory of vortices, which received its death-blow from Newton, and a dubious phraseology anent innate ideas, which found a witty executioner in Locke.

For an account of the metaphysical doctrines of Descartes, in their connections with Malebranche and Spinoza, see the article **CARTESIANISM**.

The chief editions of the collected works of Descartes are the two Latin texts in 9 vols. 4to by Elzevir 1713, and in 7 vols. 4to, Frankfurt, 1697, and the French edition by Cousin in 11 vols. 8vo, Paris, 1824–26. These include his so-called posthumous works, *The Rules for the Direction of the Mind*, *The Search for Truth by the Sight of Nature*, and other unimportant fragments, published (in Latin) in 1701. In 1859–60 Foucher de Careil published in two parts some unedited writings of Descartes from copies taken by Leibnitz from the original

papers. An edition of the philosophical works in 4 vols. 8vo, edited by Garnier, appeared at Paris, 1835. There is a good English translation of the *Method*, *Meditations*, and a small part of the *Principles*, first published at Edinburgh, 1853.

For the life of Descartes the chief authority is Baillet, *Vie de Descartes*, in 2 vols. 4to, 1691; of which a small abridgment, afterwards translated into English, appeared in 1692. There is a summary of it in Garnier's edition, and in Kuno Fischer's *Geschichte der Neuern Philosophie*, Band i. Th. 1, 8vo, Mannheim, 1865. See the *Éloge* of Thomas in Cousin's edition.

For the philosophy of Descartes, see besides the works referred to under **CARTESIANISM**, Bordas-Demoulin, *Le Cartésianisme*, 2d ed. Par. 1874; Damiron, *Histoire de la Philosophie du XVII. Siècle*; Renouvier, *Manuel de Philosophie Moderne*, Paris, 1842; Cousin, *Fragments Philosophiques*, vol. ii., Paris, 1838, *Fragments de Philosophie Cartésienne*, Paris, 1845, and in the *Journal des Savants*, 1860–61. A good estimate of the physical and mathematical labours is given in Ersch and Gruber's *Encyclopædie*; and Professor Huxley has lately, in the *Fortnightly Review*, vol. xvi., called attention to automatism. There are also several German works treating of his theology and metaphysics. (W. W.)

DESCHAMPS, EUSTACHE, called **MOREL**, a distinguished mediæval poet of France, was born at Vertus, in Champagne, early in the 14th century. The date of his birth has been approximately given as 1328, 1340, and 1345 according to the interpretation put upon certain vague statements of his own. It is certain that he lived under four kings—Philip VI., John, Charles V., and Charles VI. He studied the seven liberal arts at the university of Orleans. Early in life he proceeded to the court of France, and, after first entering the service of a prelate whose name he has not recorded, for more than thirty years took an active and prominent part in the joyous society of the day. Charged with a succession of honourable offices, he served nearly all the princes his contemporaries. His life was a long and romantic series of tournaments, feasts, and battles, and he was one of the most popular persons of his time. But before settling down to this life, he had a stormy youth of vicissitude. He was an eye-witness of the English invasion in 1358; he was in the siege of Rheims, and witnessed the march on Chartres; he was present also at the signing of the treaty at Bretigny. In 1360, as Châtelain of Vertus, he became the vassal of the young princess Isabella, to whom he paid great poetic homage. But he was then already a travelled man; he had visited Italy, Germany, and Hungary. Later on he took a part in the Flemish wars, and it was on this occasion that, about 1385, he received the surname, or nickname, of Morel, which he sometimes himself adopted in later life. He is believed, but not on very strong evidence, to have travelled in Syria and Egypt, and to have been captured and imprisoned by the Saracens. In France he lived the true life of a *trouvère*, wandering from castle to castle with his poems. He had a violent hatred for the English nation, fostered no doubt by the experiences of his youth; and this he has expressed very abundantly in his writings, particularly in the famous prophecy that England would be destroyed so thoroughly that no one should be able to point to her ruins. He was *huissier d'armes* to King Charles V., and by him appointed bailli of Senlis and governor of Fismes. It was with great reluctance that, when he felt himself growing old, he retired from public life and went into a modest seclusion, where he occupied himself in the composition of a splenetic satire against women, entitled *Le Miroir de Mariage*; though 12,500 lines of this exist, he left it unfinished at his death, which took place about 1420. Eustache Deschamps was an accomplished courtier, but he was extremely ugly; he disarms criticism by calling himself "Le Roi de Laidure." His poems remained unprinted until our day, the great fount of them being a manuscript in the Royal Library at Paris, containing 1175 ballads, 171 rondeaux, 80 virelays, 14 lays, 28 farces, and various epistles and satires. This bulk of MSS. was edited and published in 4to by M. G. A.

Crapelet in 1832, preceded by a literary and historical monograph. The value of his writings being recognized, another and more critical edition was brought out, in 1849, by M. Prosper Tarbé. The same editor published *Le Miroir de Mariage* in 1865, and a long poem entitled *Le Lay des douze États du Monde*, in 1870. Deschamps excelled in the use of the ballad and chanson royal. In each of these forms of verse he was the greatest master of his time. One of his ballads is addressed to the English poet "Geoffroy Chaucier," to whom he says—

Tu es d'amours mondains dieux en Albie
Et de la Rose en la terre Angélique.

In Eustache Deschamps the modern language of France first found a pure lyrical expression; his long life seems to connect the literature of Theobald IV. with that of Charles of Orleans.

DESERT. See **PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY**.

DESFONTAINES, RENÉ LOUCHE (1751–1833), French botanist, was a native of Brittany, born at Tremblay, in the department of Il-et-Vilaine, in 1751 or 1752. He was sent to the town school, but made slow progress in learning, and was at length dismissed by the schoolmaster as a dullard and a robber of apple orchards. This treatment left a life-long painful impression on his mind. At the college of Rennes, to which he was next sent, he applied himself heartily to study, and rejoiced in a success which falsified the judgment of his old master. From Rennes he passed to Paris, to study medicine; but this soon became a secondary pursuit, his chief attention being drawn to the study of plants. At Paris he acquired the friendship of Lemonnier, physician to the king, and of Jussieu. At the age of thirty he took his degree of M.D., and in 1783 he was elected member of the Academy of Sciences. In the same year he set out for North Africa, and spent two years in a scientific exploration of Barbary. In 1785 he returned to Paris, bringing with him a large collection of plants, animals, and other objects illustrative of natural history. The collection, it is stated, comprised 1600 species of plants, of which about 300 were described for the first time. His successful labours were rewarded, and a new congenial field of work was opened to him, by his nomination by Buffon to the post of professor at the *Jardin des Plantes*, vacated in his favour by his friend Lemonnier. The garden, says one of his biographers, now became his world. His life was thenceforth marked by few incidents. He devoted himself to his pupils, to his plants, and to the preparation of various botanical works. He purposed to publish a narrative of his African explorations, but the manuscript journal being lent to Lemonnier, and by him to the king, Louis XVI., was lost, and only a few fragments of the narrative appeared. His great work is entitled *Flora Atlantica sive historia plantarum quæ in Atlante, agro Tunetano et Algeriensi crescant*. It was published in 2 vols. 4to in 1798, and is esteemed for the singular clearness and precision of its descriptions and its nomenclature. Desfontaines, as a recluse student, escaped the perils of the Reign of Terror. On two occasions he courageously quitted his retirement to rescue the naturalists Ramond and Lheritier from prison and from death. He was admitted to the Legion of Honour at the time of its establishment. At the age of sixty-three he married a young wife, but the prospect of happiness thus opened was soon closed by her death. In 1831 he became blind, and was reduced to the recognition of his favourite plants by touch alone. Desfontaines was author of many valuable memoirs on vegetable anatomy and physiology, descriptions of new genera and species, &c., contributed to learned societies and scientific journals. One of the most important was the "Memoir on the Organization of the Monocotyledons," which gave him a

high place among discoverers. He published in 1804 a *Tableau de l'école botanique du muséum d'histoire naturelle de Paris*, of which a third edition appeared in 1831, under the new title *Catalogus Plantarum Horti Regii Parisiensis*. His modesty, simplicity of life, and good humour endeared him to his friends and to his pupils. He died at Paris on the 16th November 1833, a daughter surviving him. His Barbary collection was bequeathed to the museum, and his general collection passed into the hands of the botanist Webb.

DESHOULIÈRES, ANTOINETTE DU LIGIER DE LA GARDE (1634–1694), a French poetess, born at Paris, was the daughter of the Chevalier de la Garde, *maitre d'hôtel* to the queens Mary de' Medici and Anne of Austria. She received a careful and very complete education, acquiring while still young a knowledge of Latin, Spanish, and Italian, and studying prosody under the direction of the poet Hesnaut. At the age of eighteen she married the Seigneur Deshoulières, who had soon afterwards to go abroad along with the prince of Condé on account of his complicity in the Fronde. Madame Deshoulières returned for a time to the house of her parents, where she gave herself to writing poetry and studying the philosophy of Gassendi. She rejoined her husband at Rocroi, near Brussels, where, being distinguished for her personal beauty, she became the object of embarrassing attentions on the part of the prince of Condé, against which, however, she knew how to protect herself. Having made herself obnoxious to the Government by her urgent demand for the arrears of her husband's pay, she was imprisoned in the chateau of Wilworden, the hardships being increased by the refusal of all books except the Bible and some volumes of the fathers. After a few months she was freed by her husband, who attacked the chateau at the head of a small band of soldiers. An amnesty having been proclaimed, they returned to France, where Madame Deshoulières soon became a conspicuous personage at the court of Louis XIV. and in literary society. She won the friendship and admiration of the most eminent literary men of the age—some of her more zealous flatterers even going so far as to style her the tenth muse, and the French Calliope. Her poems were very numerous, and included specimens of nearly all the minor forms, odes, eclogues, idylls, elegies, chansons, ballads, madrigals, &c. Of these the idylls alone, and only some of them, have stood the test of time, the others being entirely forgotten. She wrote several dramatic works, the best of which do not rise to mediocrity, and the worst of which are worthy of the taste that could prefer the *Phédre* of Pradon to that of Racine. Voltaire pronounced her, nevertheless, the most successful of the female poets of France; and her reputation with her contemporaries is indicated by her election as a member of the Academy of the Ricovrati of Padua, and of the Academy of Arles. In 1688 a pension of 2000 livres was bestowed upon her by the king, and she was thus raised from the poverty in which she had long lived. She died at Paris on the 17th February 1694. Complete editions of her works were published at Paris in 1797 and 1799. These include a few poems by her daughter, Antoinette Thérèse Deshoulières (1662–1718), who inherited her talent.

DESIDERIO DA SETTIGNANO, sculptor, was born nearly at the beginning of the 15th century, and died in all probability in 1485. Vasari's statement, that he died at the age of twenty-eight, is altogether a mistake. Settignano is a village on the southern slope of the hill of Fiesole, still surrounded by the quarries of sandstone of which the hill is formed, and still inhabited, as it was 400 years ago, by a race of "stone-cutters," several of whom, though not disdaining the title of "lapidari," earned for themselves honoured places in the roll of Florentine

sculptors. Desiderio was for a short time a pupil of Donatello, and he seems to have worked also with Mino da Fiesole, with the delicate and refined style of whose works those of Desiderio seem to have a closer affinity than with the perhaps more masculine tone of Donatello. Vasari especially praises the works of Desiderio for their grace and simplicity which, as the critic remarks, are a gift of nature, and can be acquired by no study. He particularly extols the sculptor's treatment of the figures of women and children, and the eulogy applies equally to the genius and manner of Mino da Fiesole. It does not appear that Desiderio ever worked elsewhere than at Florence; and it is there that those who are interested in the Italian sculpture of the Renaissance must seek the few but remarkable works of his chisel, which have survived the changes and chances of four centuries.

DES MOINES, formerly FORT DES MOINES, a city of the United States, capital of Iowa, at the confluence of the Raccoon with the Des Moines River, which is one of the right hand tributaries of the Mississippi, and is navigable thus far for steamboats. Its public buildings include the old capitol, erected in 1856, the new capitol, founded in 1870, the post-office, with a number of other United States offices under the same roof, the Baptist college, 15 churches, and 5 high schools; and among its industrial establishments are a paper-mill, a woollen factory, an oil-mill, besides foundries, machine-shops, flour-mills, and plough-factories. There are two public libraries in the town, one of which is maintained by the State, and numbers 15,000 volumes; and, besides several daily and weekly newspapers, no fewer than six monthly periodicals are published. Forty acres of ground have been appropriated for a public park; and another area of 100 acres belongs to a park-company. Coal, lime, and clay are abundant in the neighbourhood, and the town is supplied with water from the Raccoon. Des Moines, which dates from 1846, received incorporation in 1851, and was raised to the rank of a city and the capital of the State in 1857. Population in 1860, 3965; in 1873, 15,601.

DESMOULINS, LUCIE SIMPLICE CAMILLE BENOIST (1760-1794), was born at Guise, in Picardy, on the 2d of March 1760. His father was lieutenant-general of the bailiwick of Guise, and was desirous that Camille his eldest son, who from his earliest years gave signs of unusual intelligence, should obtain as complete an education as France could then bestow. His wishes were seconded by a friend obtaining a "bourse" for the young Desmoulin, who at the age of fourteen left home for Paris, and entered the college of Louis le Grand. In this school, in which Robespierre was also a bursar and a distinguished student, Camille laid the solid foundation of his learning, and made an acquaintance with the literature and history of the classical nations so deep and extensive that it furnished him throughout the whole of his short and chequered life with illustrations which he applied with brilliancy and effect to the social manners and political events of his time.

Desmoulin having been destined by his father for the law, and having completed his legal studies, was admitted an advocate of the Parliament of Paris in 1785. His professional success was not great; his manner was violent, his appearance far from attractive, and his speech was impaired by the natural defect of a painful stammer. He indulged and fostered, however, his love for literature, he was closely observant of the course of public affairs, and he was thus gradually being prepared for the main duties of his life—those of a political *littérateur*.

In March 1789 Desmoulin began his political career. Having been nominated deputy from the bailiwick of Guise, he appeared at Laon as one of the commissioners for the election of deputies to the States General summoned by

royal edict of 24th January. Camille heralded its meeting by his *Ode to the States General*. It is, moreover, highly probable that he was the author of a radical pamphlet entitled *La Philosophie au peuple Français*. His hopes of professional success were now scattered, and he was living in Paris in extreme poverty and almost in squalor. He, however, shared to the full the excitement which attended the meeting of the States General. As appears from his letters to his father, he watched with exultation the procession of deputies at Versailles, and with violent indignation the events of the latter part of June which followed the closing of the Salle des Menus to the deputies who had named themselves the National Assembly. It is further evident that Desmoulin was already sympathizing, not only with the enthusiasm, but also with the fury and cruelty, of the Parisian crowds.

The sudden dismissal of Necker by Louis was the event which brought Desmoulin to fame. On the 12th of July 1789 Camille, leaping upon a table in one of the cafés of the Palais Royal, startled a numerous crowd of listeners by the announcement of the dismissal of their favourite. Losing in his violent excitement the stammer which impeded his ordinary speech, he inflamed the passions of the mob by his burning words and his call "To arms!" "This dismissal," he said, "is the tocsin of the St Bartholomew of the patriots." Drawing, at last, two pistols from under his coat, he declared that he would not fall alive into the hands of the police who were watching his movements. He descended amid the embraces of the crowd, and his cry "To arms!" resounded on all sides. This scene was the beginning of the actual events of the Revolution. Following Desmoulin the crowd surged through Paris, procuring arms by force; and on the 13th it was partly organized as the Parisian militia which was afterwards to be the National Guard. On the 14th the Bastille was taken.

Desmoulin may be said to have begun on the following day that public literary career which lasted till his death. In May and June 1789 he had written *La France libre*, which, to his chagrin, his publisher refused to print. The taking of the Bastille, however, and the events by which it was preceded, were a sign that the times had changed; and on the 15th of July Desmoulin's work was issued. It attracted immediate attention. By its erudite, brilliant, and courageous examination of the rights of king, of nobles, of clergy, and of people, it attained a wide and sudden popularity; it secured for the author the friendship and protection of Mirabeau, and the studied abuse of numerous royalist pamphleteers. Shortly afterwards, with his vanity and love of popularity inflamed, he pondered to the passions of the lower orders by the publication of his *Discours de la lanterne aux Parisiens*, which with an almost fiendish reference to the excesses of the mob he headed by a quotation from St John, *Qui male agit odit lucem*. Camille was dubbed "Procureur-général de la lanterne."

In November 1789 Desmoulin began his career as a journalist by the issue of the first number of a weekly publication—*Révolutions de France et de Brabant*. He conducted this alone till July 1790, and thereafter with the assistance of Stanislas Fréron till July 1792, when the publication ceased. Success attended the *Révolutions* from its first to its last number, Camille was everywhere famous, and his poverty was relieved. These numbers are valuable as an exhibition not so much of events as of the feelings of the Parisian people during the most stormy period of their history; they are adorned, moreover, by the erudition, the wit, and the genius of the author, but they are disfigured, not only by the most biting personalities and the defence and even advocacy of the excesses of the mob, but by the entire absence of the forgiveness and

pity for which the writer was afterwards so eloquently to plead.

Desmoulin had now become an acknowledged leader of public opinion. Its sudden changes suited his fickle temperament, and form the only excuse for the glaring inconsistencies which disfigure his published writings. Mirabeau, for instance, whose genius and hospitality he had frequently and openly lauded, he afterwards thought fit to denounce as the "god of orators, liars, and thieves." He was powerfully swayed by the influence of more vigorous minds; and for some time before the death of Mirabeau, in April 1791, he had begun to be led by Danton, with whom he remained associated during the rest of his life. In July 1791 Camille appeared before the municipality of Paris as head of a deputation of petitioners for the deposition of the king. In that month, however, such a request was dangerous; there was excitement in the city over the presentation of the petition, and the private attacks to which Desmoulin had often been subject were now followed by a warrant for the arrest of himself and Danton. Danton left Paris for a little; Desmoulin, however, remained there, appearing occasionally at the Jacobins club. He resigned his functions as a journalist, and the issue of his *Révolutions* ceased.

Three months afterwards, however, he again appeared in public, having been appointed secretary to the Society of the Friends of the Constitution. His second attempt at journalism was made in April and May 1792, in the issue of several numbers of the *Tribune des Patriotes*, but success did not attend the effort, and it was in his pamphlet *Jean Pierre Brissot démasqué*, which abounded in the most violent personalities, that Desmoulin again secured the eager attention of the public. This pamphlet, which had its origin in a petty squabble, was followed in 1793 by a *Fragment de l'histoire secrète de la Révolution*, in which the party of the Gironde, and specially Brissot, were most mercilessly attacked.

On the nomination of Danton, after the excesses of the 10th of August 1792, to the post of minister of justice, Desmoulin was appointed his secretary general. On September the 8th he was elected one of the deputies for Paris to the lately created National Convention. He was not successful as an orator. He was of the party of "the Mountain," and voted for the abolition of royalty and the death of the king. With Robespierre he was now more than ever associated, and the *Histoire des Brissotins*, the fragment above alluded to, was inspired by the arch-revolutionist. The success of the *brochure*, so terrible as to send the leaders of the Gironde to the guillotine, alarmed Danton and the author. Not so with Robespierre; and the split was formed which was to end in the ruin of the Dantonists.

In December 1793 was issued the first number of the *Vieux Cordelier*, by which Danton's idea of a committee of clemency was formulated and upheld. From the first Robespierre, although revising the sheets, disapproved of it, and at the fifth number the actual rupture became visible. Robespierre took advantage of the popular indignation roused against the Hébertists to send them to death, but the time had come when Saint Just and he were to turn their attention not only to *les enragés*, but to *les indulgents*—the powerful faction of the Dantonists. On the 7th of January 1794 Robespierre, who on a former occasion had defended Camille when in danger at the hands of the National Assembly, in addressing the Jacobins club counselled not the expulsion of Desmoulin, but the burning of certain numbers of the *Vieux Cordelier*. Camille sharply replied that he would answer with Rousseau—"burning is not answering," and a bitter quarrel thereupon ensued. By the end of March not only

were Hébert and the leaders of the extreme party guillotined, but their opponents, Danton, Desmoulin, and the best of the moderates were arrested. On the 31st the warrant of arrest was signed and executed, and on the 3d, 4th, and 5th of April the trial took place before the Revolutionary Tribunal. It was a scene of terror not only to the accused but to judges and to jury. The retorts of the prisoners were notable. Camille on being asked his age, replied, "I am thirty-three, the age of the *sans-culotte* Jesus, a critical age for every patriot." This was false; he was thirty-four.¹ Tinville, alarmed at the eloquence of Danton, procured from the Committee of Public Safety a decree which closed the mouths of the accused. Armed with this and the false report of a spy who charged the wife of Desmoulin with conspiring for the escape of her husband and the ruin of the republic, Tinville by threats and beseechings at last obtained from the jury a sentence of death. It was passed in absence of the accused, and their execution was appointed for the same day.

Since his arrest the courage of Camille had miserably failed. He had exhibited in the numbers of the *Vieux Cordelier* almost a disregard of the death which he must have known hovered over him. He had with consummate ability exposed the terrors of the Revolution, and had adorned his pages with illustrations from Tacitus, the force of which the commonest reader could feel. In his last number, the seventh, which his publisher refused to print, he had dared to attack even Robespierre, but at his trial it was found that he was devoid of physical courage. He had to be torn from his seat ere he was removed to prison, and as he sat next to Danton in the tumbrel which conveyed them to the guillotine, the calmness of the great leader failed to impress him. In his violence, bound as he was, he tore his clothes into shreds, and his bare shoulders and breast were exposed to the gaze of the surging crowd. Of the fifteen guillotined together, including among them Hébert de Séchelles, Westermann, and Philippeaux, Desmoulin died third; Danton, the greatest, died last. With them also died the hope of the Revolution. But a few months were to pass ere it was to be solemnly decreed that they had "deserved well of humanity."

On the 29th of December 1790, Camille had married Lucile Duplessis, and among the witnesses of the ceremony are observed the names of Brissot, Pétion, and Robespierre. The only child of the marriage, Horace-Camille, was born on the 6th of July 1792. Two days afterwards Desmoulin brought it into notice by appearing with it before the municipality of Paris to demand "the formal statement of the civil estate of his son." The boy was afterwards pensioned by the French Government. Lucile, Desmoulin's accomplished and affectionate wife was, a few days after her husband, and on a false charge, condemned to the guillotine. She astonished all onlookers by the calmness with which she braved death.

See the biographies of Desmoulin by Edward Fleury and Jules Claretie. The latter, entitled *Camille Desmoulin and his Wife*, has been translated into English (London, 1876). The work of Roch Mercandier, *Histoire des hommes de proie*, is not trustworthy. See also the literature of the Revolution, and especially of the Dantonists. The standard edition of Desmoulin's works is that of Matton. (T. S.)

DE SOTO, FERDINANDO (1496?-1542), a Spanish captain and explorer, who is frequently accredited with the honour of being the discoverer of the Mississippi, and is certainly one of the most remarkable of the Eldorado adventurers of the 16th century. He was born at Xeres de Caballeros, in Estremadura, of an impoverished family

¹ This is borne out by the register of his birth and baptism, and by words in his last letter to his wife—"I die at thirty-four." The dates (1762-94) given in nearly every biography of Desmoulin are certainly inaccurate.

of good position, and was indebted to the favour of Pedrarias Davila for the means of pursuing his studies at the university. He commenced active life in 1519 by joining his patron in his second expedition to Darien, where he distinguished himself by his ability and the independence of his demeanour. In 1528 we find him exploring the coast of Guatemala and Yucatan, and in 1532 he led a reinforcement of 300 volunteers to the assistance of Pizarro in Peru. To him was due the discovery of the pass through the mountains to Cuzco; and in the capture of that city and in other important engagements he bore a brilliant part. After the completion of the conquest De Soto, who had landed in America with "nothing else of his own save his sword and target," returned to Spain with a fortune of "an hundred and fourscore thousand ducats," which enabled him to marry the daughter of his old patron Davila, and to maintain "all the state that the house of a nobleman requireth." The Emperor Charles V., to whom he had lent a portion of his wealth, appointed him governor of the Island of Cuba, and adelantado or president of Florida, which was then the object of great interest, as possibly another Peru. In 1538 he set sail with an enthusiastic and richly furnished company of about 600 men, of whom several had sold all that they possessed to furnish their equipment. Landing in May 1539 at Espiritu Santo Bay, on the west coast of the present State of Florida, the explorers continued for nearly four years to wander from one point to another, ever deceived in their expectations, and ever allured by the report of the wealth that lay beyond. The exact line of their route is in many places difficult to identify, but it seems to have passed N. through Florida and Georgia as far as 35° N. lat., then S. to the neighbourhood of Mobile, and finally N.W. towards the Mississippi. This river was reached early in 1541, and the following winter was spent on the Washita. As they were returning in 1542 along the Mississippi, De Soto died (either in May or June), and his body was sunk in its waters. On the failure of an attempt which they made to push eastwards again, his men, under the leadership of Moscoso, were compelled in 1543 to trust themselves to the stream. A voyage of nineteen days brought them to the sea, and they then held along the coast to Panuco, in Mexico.

Of this unfortunate expedition three narratives are extant, of seemingly independent origin, and certainly of very different character. The first was published in 1557 at Evora, and professes to be the work of a Portuguese gentleman of Elvas, who had accompanied the expedition:—*Relaçam verdadeira dos Trabalhos q' ho Governador do Fernão d' Souto & certos Fidalgos Portugueses passaram no descobrimento da Provincia da Florida. Agora novamente feita per hu Fidalgo Deluas.* An English translation was published by Hakluyt in 1609, and another by an anonymous translator in 1686, the latter being based on a French version which had appeared at Paris in 1685 from the pen of Citri de la Guette. The second narrative is the famous history of Florida by the Inca, Garcilasso de la Vega, who obtained his information from a Spanish cavalier engaged in the enterprise; it was completed in 1591, first appeared at Lisbon in 1605 under the title of *La Florida del Inca*, and has since passed through many editions in various languages. The third is a report presented to Charles V. of Spain in his Council of the Indies in 1544, by Luis Hernandez de Biedma, who had accompanied De Soto as His Majesty's factor. It is to be found in Ternaux-Compans's *Recueil de Pièces sur la Floride* in the *Historical Collections of Louisiana*, Philadelphia, 1850, and in W. B. Rye's reprint for the Hakluyt Society of Hakluyt's translation of the Portuguese narrative.

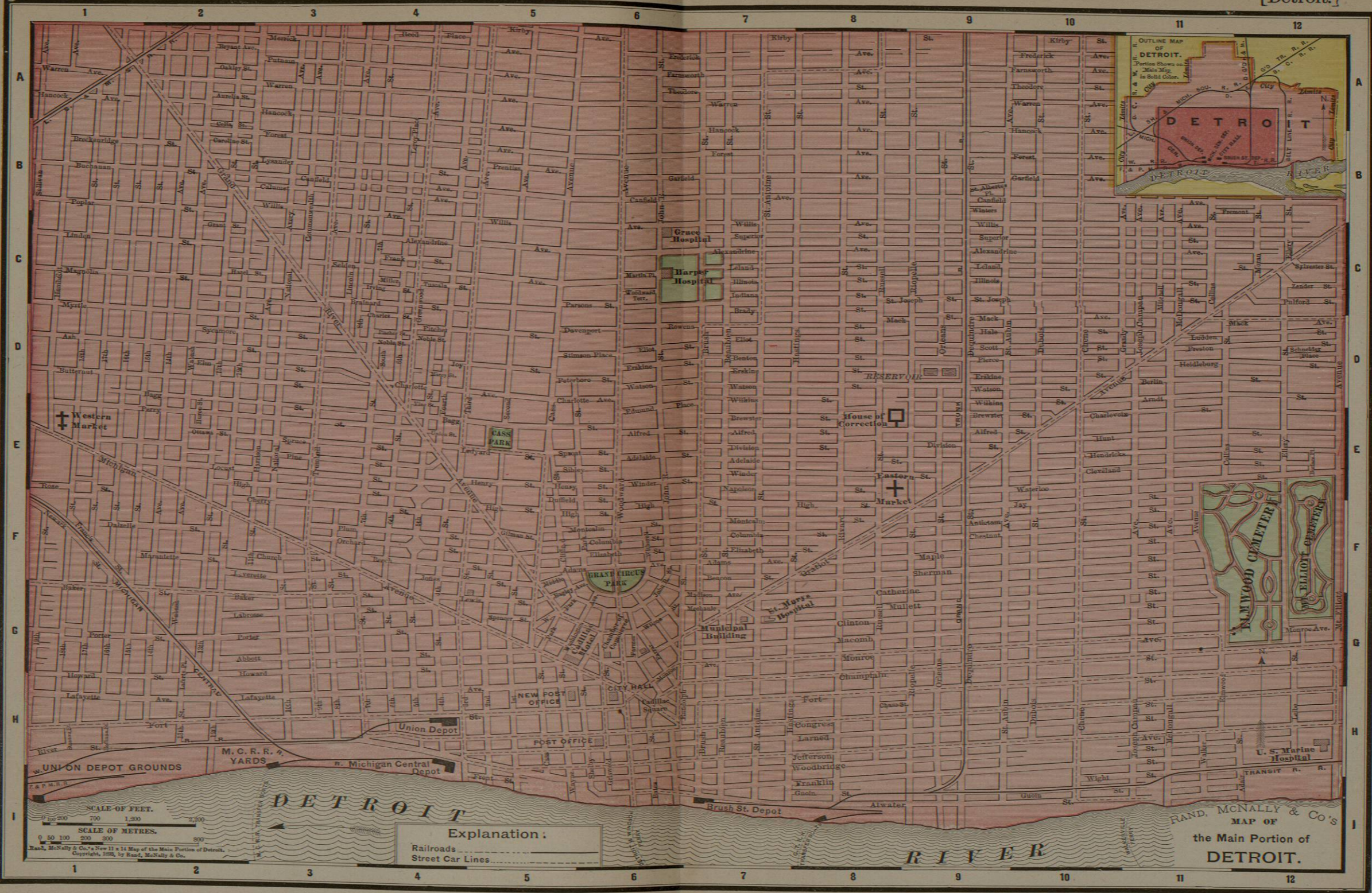
See Bancroft's *History of the United States*, vol. 1.; M'Culloch, *Researches Concerning the Aboriginal History of America*; Monette, *History of the Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi*.

DESSAIX, JOSEPH MARIE, COUNT (1764–1834), French general, was born at Thonon, in Savoy, September 24, 1764. He studied medicine, took his degree of doctor at Turin, and then went to Paris. When the Revolution

broke out he served in the National Guard. Sympathizing with the extreme party, he attempted in 1791 to establish its principles in his native land; but, being prosecuted by order of the king, he escaped to France. He had organized the so-called *Legion of the Allobroges*, and as its captain took part in the great conflict of August 10, 1792. In the following years he served at the siege of Toulon, in the army of the eastern Pyrenees, and in the army of Italy. He was captured at the battle of Rivoli, but was soon exchanged. In the spring of 1798 Dessaix was elected member of the Council of Five Hundred. In consequence of his opposition to the revolution of 18 Brumaire (9th November 1799), by which Napoleon became supreme, he was excluded from the council, retaining, however, his military command. He was appointed successively commander of Frankfort and of Breda, and in September 1803 was promoted general of brigade, and soon after commander of the Legion of Honour. He distinguished himself at the capture of Ulm, at the passage of the Tagliamento, and at the battle of Wagram. His brilliant courage at this battle procured him from the emperor the surname of "the Intrepid," and the dignity of count of the empire. He was also promoted general of division, and named grand officer of the Legion of Honour. He took part in the expedition to Russia, and was twice wounded. For several months he was commander of Berlin, and afterwards delivered the department of Mont Blanc from the Austrians. His just conduct on this occasion earned him the title of the Bayard of Savoy. After the first restoration, Dessaix was created chevalier of St Louis. He nevertheless joined Napoleon in the campaign of the Hundred Days, and in 1816 was imprisoned for five months. The rest of his life was spent in retirement. He died October 26, 1834.

DESSAU, the chief town of the duchy of Anhalt, in North Germany, is situated in 51° 51' 6" N. lat. and 12° 18' E. long., on the left bank of the Mulde, nearly two miles from its confluence with the Elbe, and 67 miles south-west of Berlin, with which it is connected by railway. The town has three suburbs. Of its gates the Zerbster Thor, with the statues of Otto the Rich and Albert the Bear, alone remains. The ducal palace, which stands in fine pleasure-grounds, contains a collection of historical curiosities, and a gallery of pictures, including works by Cimabue, Lippi, Rubens, Titian, and Vandyck. Among the other buildings are the palace of the hereditary prince, the theatre and concert room, the administrative offices, bank, gymnasium, musical academy, Amelia and Wilhelmine Institutes, two hospitals, and the Schlosskirche, adorned with paintings by Lucas Cranach, in the most interesting of which (the Last Supper) are portraits of several Reformers. The manufactures of Dessau are woollen, linen, and cotton goods, hats, leather, tobacco, and organs and other musical instruments; and there is a considerable trade in corn. In the environs are the ducal villas of Georgium and Luisium, the gardens of which, as well as those of the neighbouring town of Wörlitz, are much admired. Dessau was probably founded by Albert the Bear; it was already a town in 1213. It first began to grow into importance at the close of the 17th century, in consequence of the religious emancipation of the Jews in 1686, and of the Lutherans in 1697. Moses Mendelssohn, the philosopher, was born at Dessau in 1729. The population in 1875 was 19,621.

DESTERRO, NOSSA SENHORA DO DESTERRO, or SANTA CATHARINA, a city of Brazil, the chief town of the province of Santa Catharina, on the west coast of the island from which the province derives its name, in 27° 30' S. lat. and 48° 30' W long. It is a small but strongly fortified place, with an excellent harbour, some foreign commerce, and regular intercourse with Rio de Janeiro, from which it



SCALE OF FEET.
 0 500 1000 1500 2000 2500
 SCALE OF METRES.
 0 50 100 200 300 400
 Rand, McNally & Co.'s New 11 x 14 Map of the Main Portion of Detroit.
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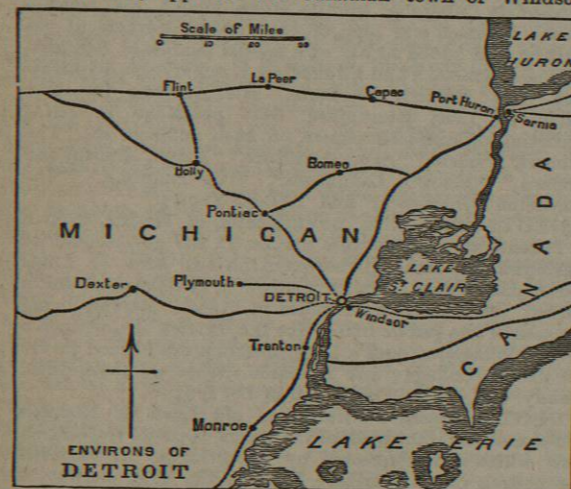
Explanation:
 Railroads
 Street Car Lines

RAND, McNALLY & Co.'s
 MAP OF
 the Main Portion of
 DETROIT.

is distant about 460 miles. Its public buildings include a governor's palace, an arsenal, a court-house, and a hospital; but none of them have any architectural interest. In 1838 great damage was done to the town by a waterspout. Population from 7000 to 8000.

DETMOLD, the chief town of the principality of Lippe, in North Germany, is situated on the Werre, at the foot of the Teutoburger-Wald, in 51° 56' N. lat. and 8° 50' E. long. The foundations of the older portion of the town were laid in 1300, and those of the newer in 1709. Among the chief buildings and institutions are the new palace, in the Renaissance style, erected about 1550, the town-house, house of correction, penitentiary, military hospital, gymnasium, the industrial, commercial, and free schools, the theatre, museum of natural science, and public library. The leading industries are linen-weaving, tanning, brewing, horse-dealing, and the quarrying of marble and gypsum. About three miles to the south-west of the town is the Grotenburg, with Bandel's colossal statue of Hermann or Arminius, the leader of the Cherusci. Detmold (Thiatmelli) was in 783 the scene of a conflict between the Saxons and the troops of Charlemagne. The population in 1875 was 6982.

DETROIT, the most important city of Michigan, in the United States of America, capital of Wayne county, situated on the west bank of the Detroit River (from the French for a *strait*), opposite the Canadian town of Windsor.



It is about 7 miles S. W. of Lake St Clair, 55 miles from Lake Huron, and 18 miles N. of Lake Erie, in 42° 20' N. lat. and 83° 3' W. long. The river, which there separates the United States from Canada, is about half a mile to three quarters of a mile wide, and 5½ fathoms deep, and flows with a pretty swift current. The population of Detroit has increased from 21,019 in 1850 to 45,619 in 1860, and 79,577 in 1870. Of this last number 35,381 were of foreign birth, including 12,647 Germans. According to the State census of 1874, the population of the city was 101,255; while in the neighbouring towns are not fewer than 15,000 persons whose business interests are in the city. Detroit with its suburbs stretches about five miles along the river, and the central part extends for about two miles back from the shore. The streets generally cross each other at right angles, and are from 50 to 100 feet wide. They are for the most part ornamented with rows of trees. A number of avenues, from 100 to 200 feet wide, diverge from the Grand Circus, a spacious park, semi-circular in form, which is divided into two quadrants by Woodward Avenue. Connected with the Grand Circus is

the Campus Martius, a public "place" about 600 feet long and 250 feet wide. The chief public building is the city hall, which faces the Campus Martius with fronts on four streets, and is one of the finest structures of the kind in the West. Built of sandstone, and designed after the Italian style of architecture, it measures 200 feet long, and 90 feet wide, and is surmounted by a tower 180 feet high. The cost of the building amounted to \$600,000 (£120,000). Other noteworthy structures are the opera house, the office of the Board of Trade, the Roman Catholic cathedral, which is the most imposing of the many churches in the city, the custom house, containing also the post-office, and the Michigan Central Railroad freight depôt, which is 1250 feet long by 102 feet wide. On the Campus Martius stands the Michigan Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument. It is of bronze and granite, 55 feet high and about 20 feet in diameter at the base. It is surmounted by a colossal bronze statue of an Indian girl representing Michigan in defence of the Union. The design comprises numerous other bronze figures, all of which were cast in Munich.

The commercial facilities of Detroit are very extensive. The Detroit River is a connecting link in the great chain of lake navigation, and affords the best harbour on the lakes. The city is the centre of an extensive railroad system, which presents important channels of transportation in almost every direction. Not fewer than five trunk lines diverge to the eastern seaboard. More than 350 vessels are owned here, and from ten to thirteen daily lines of steamers run to various points on the lakes. There is a considerable foreign commerce with Canada, the imports in 1875 amounting to \$1,680,922, and the exports to \$2,340,015; 4426 vessels entered and 4355 cleared in the foreign trade; 3968 entered and 3000 cleared in the coastwise trade. The large quantities of produce, chiefly from Michigan, passing eastward through the city by rail and water, give to Detroit an extensive domestic commerce. The manufacturing industries of the city are extensive and important. The working of iron is carried on in numerous blast furnaces, foundries, and other establishments. In 1875, 9 mills manufactured 238,200 barrels of flour; 8 factories produced more than 4,000,000 lb of chewing and smoking tobacco; and 171 establishments made about 30,000,000 cigars. Twelve saw-mills annually cut from 45,000,000 to 50,000,000 feet of lumber; and 26 brick-yards make from 55,000,000 to 60,000,000 bricks a year. The extensive Pullman car works, with a capital of about \$12,000,000, are situated here; also one of the seven pin factories in the United States. The city glass works produce about \$200,000 worth of glass a year; and the copper smelting works more than \$2,000,000 worth of ingot copper from Lake Superior ore. There are four ship-yards and three large dry docks.

Detroit has 10 lines of street railway, with more than 45 miles of track intersecting the city in every direction. It is divided into 11 wards, each returning 2 aldermen to the city council, and has a metropolitan police of 100 members; 7 steam fire-engines, the stations of which are connected by telegraphic alarm apparatus with all parts of the city; and ample supplies of water from the river. There are 64 churches, 14 asylums and hospitals, 18 public schools, 4 public libraries, the largest containing about 25,000 volumes; 2 medical colleges, and 3 medical societies, 8 daily newspapers, and 30 weekly and monthly papers and periodicals; several public parks; 10 banks, with an aggregate capital of \$3,210,000; and 62 incorporated companies, representing capital stock to the amount of \$22,445,000. The net city debt proper, January 1, 1875, amounted to \$990,340, or about \$9.78 per head of the population.