

bloodshed. He was stabbed in his bedroom by a freedman of Clemens named Stephanus, 18th Sept. 96. Had Domitian died after as short a reign as his brother he might have left behind him as fair a name, and the interesting problem for the historian is to connect the two portions of his reign, and account for the double part he played. Like Hamlet he was born to a position which he felt himself unequal to fill. So long as the popularity which he inherited from his brother lasted, and he felt himself secure on his throne, he carried on the traditions of his father's government, denounced delators, and administered even justice. After his unsuccessful campaign and the conspiracy of his general, he was seized with the common disease of absolute monarchs, the fear of assassination and distrust of all around him. The last three years of his reign witnessed the awful spectacle of the acts of a madman endowed with unlimited power.

DON, anciently TANAI, a river of European Russia, which ranks immediately after the Volga and the Dnieper. It rises in the Ivan lake, a small basin in the government of Tula, which also sends a portion of its waters to the Volga by means of the Shat, a tributary of the Upa; its course has a general southern direction through the governments of Riasan, Tamboff, Orloff, Voronesh, and the Country of the Don Cossacks; its total length, inclusive of its various windings, is 1325 miles; and its drainage area is calculated at 170,000 square miles. The Ivan lake lying 586 feet above the level of the sea, the average fall in the river is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the mile. In the upper division of its course, which may be regarded as extending to the confluence of the Voronesh, the Don flows for the most part through a low-lying and fertile country, though in the government of Riasan its banks are rocky and steep, and in some places become even precipitous. The strata which it traverses belongs to the Devonian formation. In the middle division, or from the mouth of the Voronesh to the point when it makes its nearest approach to the Volga, it cuts its way to the S.E., for the most part through Cretaceous rocks, which in many places rise on either side in steep and elevated banks, and at intervals encroach on the channel. After passing Kachalinskaya it turns to the S.W., and maintains this direction till it falls into the Sea of Azoff, the first part of this division being still in the Cretaceous formation, but the latter part lying in an Upper Tertiary district. A short distance below the town of Rostoff it breaks up into several channels, of which the largest and most southern retains the name of the river, while the others are known respectively as the Mertvi Donetz, the Mokraya Koloncha, and the Staraya Kuterma. Before it receives the Voronesh, the Don has attained a breadth of from 500 to 700, or even in a few places 1000 feet, while its depth varies from 4 to 20 feet; by the time it has reached its most eastern point, the depth has increased to from 7 to 50 feet, and the ordinary breadth to from 700 to 1000 feet, with an occasional maximum of 14,000 feet; in the lowest division the depth is frequently 70 feet, and the breadth in many places 1800 feet. Shallow reaches are not uncommon, and there are at least seven considerable shoals in the south-western part of the course. The river can be used for rafts as far up as the confluence of the Sosna; it becomes navigable after the addition of the Voronesh, and has four regular stations for traffic at Vilkoft, Pavloff, Masloff, and Mamon, in the middle part of its course; but partly owing to obstructions of the channel, and partly to the scarcity of ship-timber in the Voronesh government, it does not attain any great importance as a means of communication till it reaches Kachalinskaya. From that point, or rather from Kalatch where the railway from the Volga has its western terminus, the traffic is very extensive, and is carried on, not only by a variety of small

river craft, but also by a regular system of steamboats. Of the tributaries of the river, which are between 30 and 40 in number, the Voronesh, the Khoper, the Medveditza, and the Donetz are navigable,—the Donetz having a course of 678 miles, and affording during high water a passage to the government of Kharkoff. The lower section of the Don is subject to two annual floods, of which the first, known as the *cold water*, is caused by the melting of the snow in the country of the Don Cossacks, and the second, or the *warm water*, is due to the same process taking place in the region drained by the upper parts of the river. About the middle of June (o.s.) the subsidence sets in with great rapidity; in August it is very low water, and navigation almost ceases; but occasionally after the September rains the traffic with small craft is again practicable. During the last hundred years there have been five floods of extraordinary magnitude,—namely, in 1748, 1786, 1805, 1820, and 1845. The river is usually closed by ice from November or December to March or April, and at rare intervals the freezing takes place in October. At Aksai it remains open on the average 250 days in the year, at the mouth of the Medveditza for 239, and at Novo-Cherkassk for 246.

DON COSSACK COUNTRY (in Russian, *Donskago Voiska Zemlya*, the Land of the Don Army), the south-west portion of European Russia, situated in the basin of the Don, and bounded in part by the Sea of Azoff. Its area, according to the military survey, is 59,650 square miles, or 135,761 square versts, but according to Schweizer 62,574 square miles, or 142,401 square versts. The most of the surface consists of an irregular steppe broken in some places by undulating elevations or conical hills, and traversed by the channels and ravines of the numerous tributaries and sub-tributaries of the principal river. The district to the north is especially flat, forming in fact, as is shown by the characteristics of its flora, a part of the great Aralo-Caspian depression. Cretaceous formations appear throughout the whole "country," Tertiary and Carboniferous formations especially to the south of the Donetz. Coal and anthracite are found in considerable abundance in several places, and iron ore occurs near the Miuss, the Donetz, and the Khoper. Limestone, chalk, and slate are common; and salt is obtained from various lakes. The upper soil is in general black earth, the subsoil usually clay. Agriculture is still in a backward state owing to the military prejudices of the Cossacks; but the virgin fertility of the ground, and the proximity of such seaports as Taganrog and Rostoff conduce greatly to its development. Wheat is the most generally cultivated cereal, but rye is pretty largely grown in the northern and millet in the southern districts. Flax and hemp have been introduced, and maize is sown in the gardens. Stock-rearing is extensively prosecuted: in 1860 there were about 373,000 horses, 991,000 cattle, and 2,242,000 sheep. The horses show a mixture of various Asiatic strains, those of the southern districts being the best. The cattle are usually of Calmuck or Tatar race, but sometimes of Hungarian or Dutch; and the sheep are, with slight exception, Russian, Calmuck, or Wallachian. The land of the Don Cossacks was divided in 1802 into the following seven districts—Cherkassk, First Don, Second Don, Ust-Medveditzki or Mouth of the Medveditza, Khoper, Donetz, and Miuss; and in 1806 a new district, or *okrug*, was formed of the nomadizing Calmucks. The six first-mentioned are divided into *stаницы*, to each of which belongs a definite territory; the Miuss district is occupied by regular landholders; and the Calmucks are arranged according to hundreds, or *sotnias*. The population in 1858 of the whole *Zemlya* was 896,870, and in 1867, 1,010,135. Novo-Cherkassk is the seat of government and the residence of the directing ataman of the Don army. In ancient times the Greeks had a colony at Tanais on the Sea of Azoff, and

various factories on the Don; and the Scythians and Sarmatians nomadized throughout the district. Afterwards came the Alans, the Huns, the Ugrians, the Bulgarians, the Avars, and the Khazars, the last even building the small town of Sarkel; then followed the Pechenegs, the Polovians, and finally the Tatars, whose power was gradually diminished during the 16th and 17th centuries by the encroachments of the Russian Cossacks.

DON JUAN, a legendary personage whose story, originating in Spain, has found currency in various poetic and dramatic forms throughout most of the countries of Europe. The character has a certain historic basis in so far as it is localized at Seville in the time of Peter the Cruel, or, according to another version, of Charles V. Don Juan, who belonged to the illustrious Tenorio family, lived a life of unbridled licentiousness. In an attempt to abduct Giralda, daughter of the governor of Seville, he was encountered by her father, whom he subsequently killed in a duel. In mocking defiance of the spirit world, in whose existence his sensuality had destroyed all faith, he visited the tomb of the murdered man in the vault of San Francesco and challenged his statue to follow him to supper. The invitation was accepted; the animated statue appeared at table among the guests, and carried the blaspheming sceptic to hell. In a few later dramatic versions of the story some features are introduced belonging to another personage of the same name, Don Juan of Marana, who, having sold himself to the devil, passed the greater part of his life in debauchery and grime. His mother, however, had provided that masses should be said for his salvation, and, being converted through the influence of these, he ended his days in a monastery, where he subjected himself to the severest penance.

As a dramatic type Don Juan is essentially the impersonation of the scepticism that results from sensuality, and is thus the complement of Faust, whose scepticism is the result of speculation. In its literary treatment it has received various degrees of intensity. In the hands of the earlier Spanish dramatists it becomes, without their intending it, a solemn and impressive moral beacon, while Byron's Don Juan is a gay adventurer, with nothing in common with the legendary personage except his name and his libertinism. The first introduction of the story into dramatic literature seems to have been in Lope de Vega's *Money makes the Man*, where the incident of a walking statue occurs; but the earliest occasion on which the story was dramatized as a whole was in the *Burlador de Sevilla* (The Deceiver of Seville) of Gabriel Tellez, who published his secular works under the name Tirso de Molina. The Don Juan of this play is almost heroic in his fearlessness, indulging his cold grim humour without restraint even in the realized presence of the supernatural; but his unrelieved depravity revolts the moral sense. From Spain the drama was soon after 1620 transferred to Italy, where a translation of it was produced at Naples. A few years later it was transferred to Paris, where it was frequently acted, sometimes in the form of a translation of the work of Tellez, and sometimes in more or less free imitations, of which several were produced. A new aspect was given to the character in Molière's *Don Juan, ou le Festin de Pierre* (1665), where the hero, though as heartlessly depraved as in the Spanish original, loses some of the sterner elements both of his wickedness and of his humour, and becomes more seductive and more amusing. Into English literature the story was first introduced by Shadwell's *Libertine* (1676), a grossly indecent and, from a literary point of view, worthless play. The continued popularity of the legend in the country of its birth is attested by the fact that it has furnished the groundwork for a play—*Don Juan Tenorio* (1844),—and two poems—*El Desafio del Diablo*

and *Un Testigo di Bronce* (1845),—by the celebrated poet Zorrilla. During the present century it has also been a favourite subject with French writers of the romantic school, having been dealt with by Dumas the elder, Musset, Levasseur, Mallefille, and others. Its capacity for musical treatment has been tested by two composers of the first rank. Gluck made Don Juan the hero of a ballet, and Mozart's opera, *Don Giovanni*, the libretto of which was furnished by Da Ponte, has probably done more to popularize the story in the Molière as distinct from the severer early Spanish form than any other setting, literary or musical, it has ever received.

DONAGHADEE, a market town of Ireland, in county Down, situated near the mouth of Belfast Lough on the Irish channel, is the nearest port in Ireland to Great Britain, being $21\frac{1}{2}$ miles S.W. of Port Patrick in Wigtonshire. It consists of two principal streets, and possesses a harbour which admits vessels of 16 feet in draught. On the north-east side of the town there is a *rath* 70 feet high, in which a powder magazine has been built. The town is frequented for sea-bathing in the summer months. Population (1871), 2226.

DONALDSON, JOHN WILLIAM, a philologist and biblical critic, born 1812, died February 10, 1861. He was educated at the London university and at Trinity College, Cambridge, of which college he was afterwards elected a fellow. He graduated in the year 1834, being placed in the second class of the mathematical tripos, and second in the classical tripos, when G. J. Kennedy was senior, and W. Forsyth, the author of *Hortensius*, third classic. After his degree he devoted himself with unremitting energy to classical philology, and the *New Cratylus*, which appeared five years later, is not only a work of wonderful erudition for so young a man, but forms a landmark in the history of philology in England. In 1841 he was elected to the head-mastership of King Edward's school at Bury St Edmunds, a position which he held for over ten years. On resigning this post he returned to Cambridge, where his time was divided between literary work and private tuition. At the time of his death, which was accelerated by over-study, he was engaged in the preparation of a Greek lexicon.

The *New Cratylus*, the work on which Dr Donaldson's fame mainly rests, is an attempt to apply the general principles of comparative philology to the Greek language. The book consists of two parts—a general introduction, in which the philosophy of language and the ethnographical affinities of the ancient Greeks are discussed, and a treatise on the grammatical structure and etymology of Greek. It is mainly founded on the comparative grammar of Bopp, but a large part of it is original, and it is but just to the English philologist to observe that the great German's grammar was not completed till ten years after the first edition of the *Cratylus*. In the *Varronianus*, which followed in 1844, the same method is applied to the classification and analysis of Latin and the other Italian dialects. It includes a critical commentary on the remains of old Latin, Umbrian, and Oscan. If we consider the recent birth and rapid strides of philology it is not wonderful that these early essays should have been superseded by the riper labours of such men as Curtius, Schleicher, and Mommsen. Distinguished as Donaldson's works are by wide and varied learning, much ingenuity, and independence of thought, they are deficient in soberness of judgment, and, most of all, in the ability to distinguish between certain inference and uncertain conjecture. More especially are these defects apparent in the ethnographical theories of the *Varronianus*. To take a single instance, the origin and affinities of the Etruscan language, problems which have yet to be solved, are stated no less confidently than those of modern French.

Before discussing his other works it is necessary to mention an unfortunate controversy which this book provoked. A charge of plagiarism was brought against the author by the late Professor Key, and a war of pamphlets followed as violent as those which were common in the days of Bentley and Porson. Without attempting to decide on the merits of this dispute, it is enough to state that though the obligations of Donaldson to Key ought in the first instance to have been more explicitly acknowledged, yet the strictures of the latter were needlessly sweeping and aggressive.

We pass on to Donaldson's work as a biblical critic. In 1854 he published his *Jashar, or Fragments of original Hebrew songs inserted in the Masoretic text of the Old Testament*. The book was written in Latin, as an appeal *ad clerum*, to the learned world in general, and especially to German theologians. It is an attempt to reconstitute the lost book of Jashar from the remains of old songs and historical records, which, according to the author, are incorporated in the existing text of the Old Testament. Here, too, we notice the same merits and defects as in the *Cratylus*, the same ingenuity and learning, the same rash and over-confident speculation. The bold views of the author on the nature of inspiration, and the free handling of the sacred text, provoked a storm of theological odium, but the only one of his numerous assailants who deserves mention is Dr Perowne. A full analysis of the book will be found in Smith's *Biblical Dictionary*, s. v. "Jashar."

Of his numerous other works the most important are *The Theatre of the Greeks*, *The History of the Literature of Ancient Greece* (a completion of K. O. Müller's work), an edition of *Pindar*, and a Hebrew, a Greek, and a Latin Grammar. Among his occasional writings the article "Philology" in the 8th edition of this *Encyclopædia* is the most important. Though much of what he wrote has already become obsolete, Donaldson will long be remembered as one of the pioneers of philology in England.

DONATELLO (1386-1466), the diminutive of Donato, was the son of Niccolò Bardi, and was born in Florence in 1386. In the struggle between the rival parties of the Albizzi and the Medici, the father took part with the former, and was involved in their ruin. He must have been a man of considerable property, judging from the decree by which his houses are confiscated. His son Donatello found protection and shelter and the means of early training from the Martelli family, and to this connection must be ascribed Donatello's introduction to the great Cosmo de' Medici, *pater patriæ*, who during the life-long relation between himself and the artist, did everything to efface, by kindness towards the son, the recollection of the sufferings which the house of Medici had inflicted on the father. He learned the goldsmith's trade under the father of the renowned Lorenzo Ghiberti, and the goldsmith's trade then included all kinds of bronze creations. At the age of seventeen he set out for Rome with his friend Brunellesco. At Rome the two young men maintained themselves by working as goldsmiths during the first half of the week, devoting the second half to the study of the ancient monuments, and to making excavations in search of lost works of art. The Romans, we are told, believed them to be treasure-seekers. The Romans of Donatello's time still reflected the feelings with which their forefathers, nearly three centuries before, had wondered when the agents of Henry of Blois, bishop of Winchester, dug up and carried away from their city similar artistic treasures. On their return to Florence, rich in artistic knowledge and treasures, the careers commenced in which Brunellesco was destined to hang above the Florence cathedral the dome of the Pantheon, and Donatello to impart to the multitudinous

creations of his chisel the truthfulness and grace and power for which he was so largely indebted to his ancient models. There exist 40 works of Donatello of unquestioned authenticity, and 31 respecting which controversies have arisen; and 25, recorded by his contemporaries but no longer found, must be added to the number. When it is borne in mind that many of these works are life-size or colossal statues, or large bas-reliefs crowded with figures, an idea may be formed of the extent of his labours, prosecuted untiringly during a life which extended to eighty years. He was fortunate in the precise period of his labours. During the whole of the previous century Florentine art had concentrated its efforts on the creation of its grand architectural monuments. In the second half of the 15th century sculpture was cultivated, but chiefly to adorn the palaces and gratify the vanity of the rich. Donatello, placed between the two periods, could devote his genius to the execution of the great plastic works required for the completion and adornment of the public buildings of the state. Hence the statues of the church of St Michele, those on Giotto's belfry, the pulpit of St Lorenzo, those in the baptistry, as well as all the other works which still remain exactly where first placed—unhappily no longer the case with the St George—possess an exceptional beauty; for no sculptor ever studied more carefully than Donatello the exact relation of a work to its local destination. The varied and characteristic elements of Donatello's art, what he borrowed from the antique, what peculiar tricks of drapery he took from his immediate predecessors, how, from his first habit of painting his figures he passed into a phase of purely sculptured effects, how he was influenced by his friend Brunellesco in his treatment of proportion and perspective, how he imparted a more pictorial character by the greater flatness of the figures to his bas-reliefs, all this forms one of the most interesting chapters in the history of Renaissance sculpture. Besides Florence he worked also at Rome, Padua, Venice, Siena, Modena, Mantua, and Ferrara; and he visited Rome a second time. In Padua he produced, in 1432, the equestrian statue of Gattamelata with some minor works, and as almost his latest work we may consider the statue of St Louis of France, executed for St Croce. To English students of art it may be satisfactory to learn that, in the opinion of Semper, the South Kensington museum possesses seven undoubted specimens of Donatello, besides one, the Magdalen seated on clouds, probably by a scholar, and a virgin and child of doubtful origin. Donatello, though best known as a sculptor, was likewise a painter,—at least was admitted as such into the academy of St Lucca in 1412. We find him paid for architectural drawings and opinions respecting the dome of the Florence cathedral in 1420, and he was sent as military engineer to the siege of Lucca in 1430. His first trade of goldsmith was never abandoned. Thus varied and versatile, we cannot but form the highest opinion of one respecting whom Vasari has said that he threw the same love of art into every work great or small, and that he always did more than he promised. His life-long attachment to his patron Cosmo was only equalled by his lavish kindness to his friends; for we read that the large sums received by him were kept in an open box in his workshop, and that his friends when wanting money were invited and expected to help themselves, no questions being asked or receipts given. In his last years he was provided for by Piero, the son of Cosmo. He died at Florence in 1466. Donatello's greatest works, his Baptist, David, Judith, St George, and Mark, are declared by some recent critics not to rise into the highest sphere of true Christian art. The sculptor, we are told, wanted the deep faith of Michelangelo. Perhaps the best corrective of this criticism is the language of Michelangelo himself, who, when gazing with generous admiration

on the St Mark, exclaimed, "So noble a figure could indeed write a gospel."

DONATI, GIOVANNI BATTISTA, professor of astronomy at the Royal Institution of Florence, was born at Pisa, December 16, 1826, and died at Florence, September 20, 1873. In 1852 he became an assistant at the Florentine observatory, of which in 1864 he was appointed director. On June 2, 1858, he discovered the comet which bears his name (see vol. ii. p. 815). Other comets were discovered by him on June 3, 1855, November 10, 1857, and July 23 and September 9, 1864. He made numerous spectroscopic observations of comets and the solar disc, and in 1862 published diagrams of three or four lines in the spectra of fifteen stars. The new observatory on the hill of Arcetri, near Florence, was erected under his superintendence, and was directed by him. At the time of his death Donati had just returned from Vienna, where he was the representative of Italy in the international meteorological congress.

DONATISTS, a powerful sect which formed itself in the Christian church of northern Africa in the beginning of the 4th century.¹ In its doctrine it sprang from the same roots, and in its history it had in many things the same character, as the earlier Novatians. The predisposing causes of the Donatist schism were the belief, early introduced into the African church, that the validity of all sacerdotal acts depended upon the personal character of the agent, and the question, arising out of that belief, as to the eligibility for sacerdotal office of the *traditores*, or those who had delivered up their copies of the Scriptures under the compulsion of the Diocletian persecution; the exciting cause was the election of a successor to Mensurius, bishop of Carthage, who died in 311. Mensurius had held moderate views as to the *questio verata* of the treatment of the *traditores*, and accordingly a strong fanatical party had formed itself in Carthage in opposition to him, headed by a wealthy and therefore influential widow named Lucilla, and countenanced by Secundus of Tigris, primate of Numidia. There were thus two parties each anxious to secure the succession to the vacant see. The friends of the late bishop fixed their choice on Cæcilian, the arch-deacon, and secured his election and his consecration by Felix, the bishop of Aptungis, before the other party were ready for action. It had been customary, though probably it was not essential, that the Numidian bishops should be present at the election and consecration of the bishop of Carthage; Cæcilian's party had not waited for them, knowing them to be in sympathy with their opponents. Soon after Cæcilian's consecration, however, Secundus and seventy of the Numidian bishops arrived at Carthage, and steps were at once taken to displace the new bishop. A synod was formed before which Cæcilian was summoned; his consecration was declared invalid, on the ground that Felix had been a traditor; and finally, having refused to obey the summons to appear, he was excommunicated, and Majorinus, a dependent of Lucilla's, consecrated in his stead. Thus the schism became overt, and in a very short time there were rival bishops and rival churches in most of the cities of North Africa, as well as in Carthage.

The inevitable appeal to the civil power to settle the dispute was first made by the Donatists, who were incited to do so by receiving proof, in their exclusion from certain privileges conferred on the African church, that the sympathies of Constantine were with the other party.

¹ There were two Donatines connected with the Donatist sect, Donatus of Cass Nigra, and Donatus surnamed Magnus, who succeeded Majorinus as the Donatist bishop of Carthage. The name of the sect was probably derived from the latter, who was the more influential of the two. It is to be observed that the Donatists themselves repudiated that designation, which was applied to them by their opponents as a reproach. They called themselves "Pars Majorini" or "Pars Donati."

They accordingly petitioned the emperor to appoint a commission to try the case, indicating a preference for Gallic bishops, among whom there were no traditors, the Diocletian persecution not having extended to Gaul. The result was that a commission was issued to five Gallic bishops, under the presidency of Miltiades, bishop of Rome. The number of referees was afterwards increased to twenty, and the case was tried at Rome in 313. Ten bishops appeared on each side, the leading representative of the Donatists being Donatus of Cass Nigra. The decision was entirely in favour of Cæcilian, and Donatus was found guilty of various ecclesiastical offences. An appeal was taken and allowed; but the decision of the synod of Arles (314) not only confirmed the position of Cæcilian, but greatly strengthened it by passing a canon that ordination was not invalid because performed by a traditor, if otherwise regular. Felix had previously been declared innocent after an examination of records and witnesses at Carthage. A further appeal to the emperor in person was heard at Milan in 316, when all points were finally decided in favour of Cæcilian. As a necessary consequence of this the power of the state was directed to the suppression of the defeated party. Persistent Donatists were no longer merely heretics; they were rebels, and incurred the confiscation of their church property and the forfeiture of their civil rights.

The attempt to destroy by force a fanatical sect had its usual result in only intensifying its fanaticism and consolidating its sectarianism. Majorinus, the Donatist bishop of Carthage, dying in 315, was succeeded by Donatus, surnamed Magnus, a man of great force of character, under whose influence the schism gained fresh strength from the position it encountered. Force was met with force; the Circumcelliones, bands of fugitive slaves and vagrant (*circum cellas*) peasants, were enlisted as the champions of Donatism, and their violence reached such a height as to threaten civil war. In 321 Constantine, seeing probably that he had been wrong in abandoning his usual policy of toleration in this case, sought to retrace his steps by granting the Donatists liberty to act according to their consciences, and declaring that the points in dispute between them and the orthodox should be left to the judgment of God. This wise policy, to which he consistently adhered to the close of his reign, was not followed by his son and successor in the Western Empire, Constans, who, after repeated attempts to win over the sect by bribes, resorted to persecution. The renewed excesses of the Circumcelliones, among whom were ranged fugitive slaves, debtors, and political malcontents of all kinds, had given to the Donatist schism a socialist aspect; and its forcible suppression may therefore have seemed to Constans even more necessary for the preservation of the empire than for the vindication of orthodoxy. The power which they had been the first to invoke having thus declared so emphatically and persistently against them, the Donatists were led to adopt the theory known in more recent times as that of spiritual independence, which Donatus Magnus formulated in the question, "What has the emperor to do with the church?" (*Quid est imperatori cum ecclesia?*) Such a theory naturally aggravated the lawlessness of the Circumcellion adherents of the sect, and their outrages were in turn made the justification for the most rigorous measures against the whole Donatist party indiscriminately. Many of their bishops fell victims to the persecution, and Donatus and several others were banished from their sees.

With the accession of Julian (361) an entire change took place in the treatment of the Donatists. Their churches were restored and their bishops reinstated, with the natural result of greatly increasing both the numbers and the fanaticism of the sect. A return to the earlier policy of repression was made under Valentinian I. and

Gratian, by whom the Donatist churches were again closed, and all assemblies of adherents of the sect forbidden. It was not, however, until the commencement of the 5th century that the sect began to decline, owing partly to the occurrence of a division within it, but still more to the arguments used against it by the greatest theologian of the early church. The division arose out of a quarrel between Maximian, a deacon in Carthage, and Primian, the successor of Parmenian in the (Donatist) bishopric. Maximian, being excommunicated, formed a party which, as Neander puts it, "stood in precisely the same relation to the body of the Donatists as the Donatists themselves did to the Catholic church." The dispute was a source of weakness in itself, and still more by the unanswerable arguments it furnished to the Catholic party, who during the reign of the emperor Honorius made repeated and determined efforts to secure the extinction of the schism. In 405 an imperial edict was issued commanding the Donatists, under the severest penalties, to return to the Catholic church. Meanwhile the more appropriate weapon of argument was being effectively wielded by the Catholic party, under the leadership of one of the ablest controversialists the Christian church has ever known. Augustine, bishop of Hippo, after several years' negotiation, found it possible to arrange a great conference between the Donatists and the orthodox, which took place under the orders of the emperor at Carthage in 411. There were present two hundred and eighty-six Catholic and two hundred and seventy-nine Donatist bishops. Before entering on the proceedings the Catholics pledged themselves, if defeated, to give up their sees, while in the other event they promised to recognize the Donatists as bishops on their simply declaring their adherence to the Catholic church. The latter proposal, though it was received with scorn at the time, had perhaps ultimately as much influence as the resistless logic of Augustine in breaking the strength of the schism. The discussion, which lasted for three days, Augustine and Aurelius being the chief speakers on the one side, and Primian and Petilian on the other, turned exclusively upon the two questions that had given rise to the schism,—first, the question of fact, whether Felix had been a traitor, and secondly, the question of doctrine, whether a church by tolerance of unworthy members within its pale lost the essential attributes of purity and catholicity. On the second point, to which alone abiding interest attaches itself, the Catholic view was stated and defended by Augustine with a force of argument, an aptness of quotation from Scripture (often, however, founded on misinterpretation), and a beauty of language that all but compel assent. Nowhere else in polemical theology are there to be found more valuable statements as to the connection between the divine and the human elements in the communication of grace, and as to the relative importance of the two attributes of catholicity and purity respectively as tests of the true church. It is to be observed, however, that on the side of Augustine as well as on that of his opponents there is the inevitable confusion of thought that arises from failure to apprehend the distinction between the visible and the invisible church.

The decision of Marcellinus, the imperial commissioner, was in favour of the Catholic party on both questions, and it was at once confirmed on an appeal to the emperor. As in the case of the similar decision almost exactly a century earlier, there followed the severest penal measures against the schismatics, the clergy being banished and the laity subjected to heavy fines. The extinction of the schism, which all the arguments of Augustine had failed to effect, was still less to be brought about by persecution. The Donatists continued to maintain an independent existence until the 7th century, when they disappear from history,

along with the whole Christian church of North Africa, before the invading Saracens.

Sources.—1. Contemporary.—*Optatus Milevitanus De Schismate Donatistarum Lib. VII.*, (Dupuis's ed., Paris, 1700), and several of the works of Augustine. 2. Modern.—Walsh's *Entwurf einer vollständigen Historie der Ketzerien*, Neander's *Kirchengeschichte*, Hagenbach's *Kirchengeschichte*, Herzog's *Encyclopädie*, art. "Donatisten," Robertson's *History of the Christian Church*.

DONATUS, ÆLIUS, a grammarian and rhetorician, who taught at Rome in the middle of the 4th century A.D., had the honour of numbering St Jerome among his pupils, and was the author of a number of professional works. We still possess his *Ars grammatica*, consisting of three parts, *De literis, syllabis, pedibus et tonis*, *De octo partibus orationis*, and *De barbarismo, solecismo, schematibus, et tropis*; the larger portion of his commentary on Terence, in a greatly interpolated condition; and a few fragments of his notes on Virgil preserved and severely criticised by Servius. The first of these works, and especially the section *De octo partibus*, though possessing little claim to originality, and in fact evidently based on the same authorities which were used by Charisius and Diomedes, attained such popularity as a school-book that in the Middle Ages the writer's name became a common metonymy for a rudimentary treatise of any sort, and bade fair to furnish as permanent an addition to the English vocabulary as has been obtained in French from the name of Calepinus. Avaricia, for example, in the Vision of Piers Plowman, tells how he "drowe among draperes his donet to learn;" and bishop Pecock published about 1440 a *Donat into Christian Religion*. On the introduction of printing the little book was one of the first rendered accessible by the new process, and editions were soon multiplied to such an extent that the bibliography of Donatus is nearly as intricate a subject as that of the Bible. Copies still exist, though in a mutilated condition, of impressions produced by the early wooden-block system, details about which may be found in Sotzmann's "Aelteste Geschichte der Xylographie" in the *Historische Taschenbuch* for 1837. The *Ars Grammatica* is reprinted in *Gram. Latinae Auctores Antiqui*, Hanover, 1605, and by Lindemann in *Corpus Grammaticorum Latinorum*, vol. i.; and the *Commentaries on Terence*, first published at Rome in 1472, may be found in Klotz's edition of the dramatist, 1838-40. The *Commentary on Virgil* discovered by J. Jovian Pontanus, and published by Scipio Caepicius at Naples in 1535, is the work of a later grammarian of the same name, Tiberius Claudius Donatus.

See Teuffel, *History of Roman Literature*, vol. ii., and the writers there referred to.

DONAÜWÖRTH, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Swabia-Neuburg, 25 miles N. of Augsburg, on the left bank of the Danube, at the confluence of the Würnitz. It is of some importance as a river port, and the centre of a considerable agricultural trade; but its main interest is historical. Having grown up in the course of the 11th and 12th centuries under the protection of the castle of Mangoldstein, it became in the 13th the seat of the duke of Upper Bavaria, who, however, soon withdrew to Munich to escape if possible from the *manes* of his wife Maria of Brabant, whom he had there beheaded on an unfounded suspicion of infidelity. The town received the freedom of the empire in 1308, and maintained its position in spite of the encroachments of Bavaria till 1607, when the interference of the Protestant inhabitants with the abbot of the Holy Cross called forth an imperial law authorizing the duke of Bavaria to inflict chastisement for the offence. In the Thirty Years' War which soon after broke out, it was stormed by Gustavus Adolphus in 1632, and captured by King Ferdinand in 1634. In the vicinity the Bavarians and French were defeated by Marlborough and Prince

Louis of Baden in 1704. The imperial freedom restored to the town by Joseph I. in 1705 was again lost by re-incorporation with Bavaria in 1714. The abbey of the Holy Cross is still standing, and the neighbouring chapel still preserves the sarcophagus of the unfortunate duchess Maria.

DONCASTER, the *Darum* of Antoninus and *Dona* *Cæster* of the Saxons, a municipal borough and market-town of England, in the west riding of Yorkshire, 32 miles S. of York and 156 miles N. of London by railway, in the line of the ancient Roman road of Ermine street or, as some write, Watling street, is situated on the right bank of the Don, over which and an arm of it called the Cheswold it has two bridges. The parish church of St George, occupying the site of an older structure of the same name destroyed by fire in 1853, was finished in 1858 at a cost of £43,128; its tower is 172 feet high. Among the other public buildings are Christ Church and St James's, the mansionhouse, market-hall, guildhall, theatre, grammar-school, infirmary, and jail. The commerce of Doncaster is mainly agricultural, and the corn market is of considerable importance. The manufactures are iron and brass ware, sacking and linen, spun flax, ropes, and agricultural machines. About a mile to the south-east of the town is the race course, which is nearly circular, and has a circumference of 1 mile 7 furlongs and 70 yards; the principal races held annually commence on the Tuesday after the 10th of September. The grand stand, erected in 1777, has been frequently altered and improved, but has lost much of its importance by the erection of minor stands. Races have long been held at Doncaster, and there was a stand on the course before the year 1615. The St Leger race takes its name from Lieut.-Gen. St Leger, who originated it in 1776; but it was not so named till 1778. Doncaster received its first charter from Richard I. In 1399, after landing at Ravenspur, Bolingbroke, subsequently Henry IV., lodged for a time in the town. In 1871 the population of the municipal borough was 18,768. The area is 1691 acres.

DONEGAL, a maritime county in the extreme north-west of Ireland, in the province of Ulster, bounded on the N. and W. by the Atlantic Ocean, on the E. by Lough Foyle, and the counties of Londonderry and Tyrone, and on the S. by Donegal Bay and the counties of Fermanagh and Leitrim. It covers an area of 1870½ square miles, or 1,197,154 acres, of which 22,880 are under water.

Coast.—The county possesses a large extent of sea-coast indented by numerous inlets. Ballyshannon harbour, the most southern of them, is small, and has a bar at its mouth, as have Donegal and Inver harbours farther west. Killibegs harbour is well sheltered, and capable of receiving large vessels. On the western coast are Bruckles or M'Swiney's Bay, and Teelin harbour, suitable for small vessels; and on the north is Sheephaven, within which is Dunfanaghy Bay, where the largest ships may lie in safety, as they may also in Mulroy Bay and Lough Swilly farther east. Lough Foyle, which divides Donegal from Londonderry, is a noble sheet of water, but is shallow and dry at ebb tide, contracted at its entrance, and encumbered with shoals. A few miles from Malin Head, the most northerly portion of the mainland of Ireland, the varied and extensive Lough Swilly runs far into the interior. From these two loughs much land has been reclaimed. Numerous islands and rocks

stud the coast. The largest island is North Aran, about fifteen miles in circumference, with a lofty hill in its centre, and a gradual declivity down to the sea. On the northern coast are Tory Island, on which is one of those singular round towers marking the holy places of ancient times, and, further east, Innistrahul the *ultima Thule* of Ireland. The inhabitants of the islands obtain a precarious livelihood by fishing, kelp-burning, and rude husbandry, but are often reduced to extreme destitution.

Mountains.—Mountains and irregular groups of highlands occupy the whole interior of the county, and a considerable portion is bog and moor land. Arrigal mountain attains an elevation of 2462 feet above the level of the sea, and commands from its summit a fine view over a considerable portion of the country. Bluestack (2213 feet), Muckish mountain (2190 feet) in Kilmacrenan barony, and Slieve Snaght (2019) in Innishowen are, next to Arrigal, the highest mountains. The eastern and southern portions of the county are comparatively level, and contain the most fertile land. Occasionally the scenery attains a character of savage and romantic grandeur in the highland districts and on the sea-coast, and of much beauty in the eastern part of the county; but a considerable portion of the surface is occupied by bogs, and entirely destitute of timber.

Geology.—The main body of the county rests upon mica slate, which forms the eastern districts and most of the barony of Bannagh. From Sheephaven to Lochrumore and the north-western coast, granite forms the surface rock, and quartz is very abundant, often forming mountains of considerable elevation. Carboniferous or mountain limestone occurs round Donegal Bay. The geological aspect of the county affords many indications of internal wealth, but very few attempts have been made to ascertain the mineral resources of the district. The minerals hitherto discovered are lead and iron. Steatite is worked to some extent at Gartan. Manganese, copper pyrites, and clay for potteries and brick-making are also found. Siliceous sand, raised in Muckish Mountain, was formerly conveyed in large quantities to Belfast and Scotland for the manufacture of glass. Indications of coal have been observed near Lough Swilly, and at Inver on the southern coast; and marble of fine quality exists in many places. Among the mountain streams the pearl-mussel (*Unio margaritifera*) is sometimes found. There are several mineral springs, the chief of which is the sulphureo-chalybeate water at Killymard near the town of Donegal.

Rivers.—With the exception of the tidal river Foyle, which forms the boundary between this county and Tyrone and Londonderry, the rivers, though numerous, are of inferior size. The branches of the Foyle which rise in Donegal are the Derg, issuing from Lough Derg, and the Finn, rising in the beautiful little lake of the same name in the highlands, and passing through some of the best cultivated land in the county. The Foyle, augmented by their contributions, and by those of several other branches from Tyrone and Londonderry, proceeds northwards, discharging its waters into the southern extremity of Lough Foyle, at the city of Londonderry. It is navigable for vessels of large burden to this place, and thence by lighters of fifty tons as far as Lifford. Boats of fourteen tons can proceed up the Finn river as far as Castlefinn. The fine river Erne flows from Lough Erne through the southern extremity of the county into the southern extremity of Donegal Bay. Its navigation is prevented by a fall of 12 feet, generally called the Salmon Leap, in the neighbourhood of Ballyshannon, and by rapids between Ballyshannon and Belleek, on the confines of Fermanagh. The Gaibarra, the Awen Ea, and the Eask are the only other streams of any note.

Lakes, or rather tarns, are very numerous in Donegal.



Arms of Doncaster

The most remarkable, and also the largest, is Lough Derg, comprising within its waters several small islets, on one of which, Station Island, is the cave named Saint Patrick's Purgatory, a celebrated place of resort for pilgrims and devotees. The circumference of the lake is about nine miles, and the extent of the island to which the pilgrims are ferried over is less than one acre. The landscape around Lough Derg is desolate and sombre in the extreme, barren moors and heathy hills surrounding it on all sides.

Agriculture.—The modes of agriculture present little that is peculiar to the county, and the spade still supplies the place of the plough where the rocky nature of the surface prevents the application of the latter implement. The soil of the greater portion of the county, i.e., the granite, quartz, and mica slate districts, is thin and cold, while that on the Carboniferous limestone is warm and friable. Owing to the boggy nature of the soil, agriculture has not made much progress, although in certain districts (Gweedore, for instance) much land has been brought under cultivation, through the enterprise of the proprietors. In 1871 about 43½ per cent. of the land was returned as bog and waste, about 35 per cent. under pasture, and 21 per cent. under tillage. As an indication of the stationary condition of the husbandry of Donegal, it may be stated that the number of acres returned as under crops in 1853 was 236,097, while in 1876 it was 236,015.

The following statistics will show the details of the agricultural acreage and the numbers of live stock in recent years:—

	Oats.	Flax.	Potatoes.	Turnips.	Meadow and clover.	Total under crops.
1873.....	96,347	14,496	48,304	17,141	47,917	232,794
1876.....	95,422	15,337	47,164	17,695	51,647	236,015

	Cattle.	Sheep.	Horses and mules.	Pigs.	Poultry.
1873.....	184,233	182,608	28,759	20,960	508,766
1876.....	187,547	171,304	23,148	35,628	637,441

Wheat and barley are quite an inconsiderable crop, and in this as well as in other respects Donegal is much behind the rest of Ulster in the extent of its crops. It bears, however, a more favourable comparison as regards its live stock, possessing, as it does, the largest number of cattle and sheep of any county in the province, and after Cavan the largest number of poultry.

As regards the division of the land, according to the Return of 1876, the county was held in 1874 by 2174 separate owners, whose estates amounted in the aggregate to 1,172,526 acres, valued at £340,632. There were 1171 proprietors of less than 1 acre of ground, forming a proportion of 54 per cent. of the total proprietors,—that of all Ulster being 48 per cent. The average size of the properties was 539 acres, and the value per acre, 5s. 9d., while the averages for Ulster were respectively 239½ acres and 15s. 8½d. Sixteen proprietors owned more than 15,000 acres each, and together an aggregate equal to about 45 per cent. of the whole land. They were the following:—Marquis of Conyngham, 122,300 acres; Earl of Leitrim, 54,352; H. G. Murray Stewart, 50,818; W. H. M. Style (Glenmore), 39,564; A. J. R. Stewart (Castlemore), 39,306; John Leslie, 28,827; George Harvey, 25,593; Lord G. A. Hill, 24,189; Messrs Musgrave, 23,673; Sir Samuel H. Hayes, Bart., 22,825; Thomas Connolly, 22,736; *Church Temporalities Commission*, 21,489; Wybrants Olphert (Ballyconnel), 18,133; J. G. Adair (Glenveagh), 16,308; Duke of Abercorn, 15,942; T. Y. Brooke (Lough Esk), 15,134.

Manufactures.—In Donegal, as in other counties of Ulster, the linen manufacture affords employment to a number of the inhabitants, especially at Raphoe, while the manufacture of woollen stockings and worked muslin is carried on pretty extensively. The trade in these manufactures and in the domestic produce of the county finds its

principal outlets through the port of Derry and the inland town of Strabane, county Tyrone.

Fisheries.—The deep sea fisheries are important. They comprise the three districts of Killybegs, Dunfanaghy, and Carndonagh—the last-named including a small part of the Derry coast—and extend to 395 miles of maritime boundary. In 1875 there were 777 boats registered in the fisheries, manned by 3053 men and boys. The salmon fishery is also prosecuted to a considerable extent, the principal seats of the trade being at Ballyshannon and Letterkenny.

Administration, &c.—The county is divided into the six baronies of Innishowen, Kilmacrenan, Boyleagh, Raphoe, Bannagh, and Tyrnagh, and into 51 parishes. It contains seven poor law unions, and ecclesiastically it belongs for the most part to the diocese of Raphoe. It is included in the military district of Belfast, and the assizes are held at Lifford on the borders of Tyrone. The population has decreased within the last 20 years at a greater ratio than the rest of Ulster, and emigration has drawn off a greater proportion of the people than in other parts of the province. For the 24 years ending in 1875 the rate of emigration has averaged 2908 per annum. By the census of 1851 Donegal contained 255,158 persons, in 1861, 237,390, and in 1871, 218,334, of whom 106,080 were males and 112,254 females—thus showing a decrease within these 20 years of 14½ per cent. In 1875 the population was estimated at 208,607.

After Cavan, Donegal is the most Catholic county in Ulster. In 1871, 75 per cent. of the inhabitants belonged to that persuasion, while 12½ per cent. were Episcopalians and 10½ per cent. Presbyterians. Education in the same year was conducted in 7 superior and 407 primary schools. There were, however, 93,285 persons above five years of age who were returned as illiterate, and 18,629 who could speak Erse only. The Donegal dialect is said to be the purest of the Irish language.

This county returned no fewer than twelve members to the Irish parliament,—two for the county at large, and two for each of the insignificant boroughs of Ballyshannon, Donegal, Killybegs, Lifford, and Johnstown. Since the union with Great Britain, it has been represented in the imperial parliament by two county members only.

Towns.—The towns are small in extent and importance. Lifford, the county town (population 660), and formerly a parliamentary borough, is practically a suburb of Strabane, in the neighbouring county of Tyrone. Ballyshannon (population 2958) is the most populous and important town in the county. It stands on both sides of the river Erne, but does not derive much advantage from its favourable situation in consequence of the fall of the river, usually called the Salmon Leap, above the town, and the bar at the mouth of the harbour. Letterkenny at the head of Lough Swilly, with 2116 inhabitants, is, next to Ballyshannon, the largest town in the county. Donegal (population 1422), is situated at the foot of a range of hills in the midst of scenery of great natural beauty, with a mineral spa in the neighbourhood, and sea-bathing close to the town.

History.—The greater part of Donegal was anciently called Tir-conaill, or the country of Conall; and it was sometimes called O'Donnell's country, after the head chieftains of the district. The other chieftains of note were the O'Doghertys, MacSweeneyes, O'Boyles, O'Gallaghers, O'Gormleys, O'Breslins, &c. Tyrconnell is connected with some of the earliest events recorded in Irish history or tradition. The chief castle of the O'Donnells, who became princes of Tyrconnell in the 12th century, was at Donegal, and the place of their inauguration the rock of Doune in Kilmacrenan. The celebrated Red Hugh O'Donnell, one of the most distinguished chieftains of the race, in conjunction with the Earl of Tyrone, became a formidable opponent to the Government of Queen Elizabeth; but being ultimately defeated, he sailed to Spain to solicit fresh succours, was there seized with fever, and died at Valladolid. Rory O'Donnell, who was promoted to the chieftainship by the English Government, and created Earl of Tyrconnell, a title

now extinct, became afterwards disaffected to the Government and fled to Rome, where he died in exile, his estates having been previously confiscated by James I. In 1608, Sir Cahir O'Dogherty, lord of Innishowen, deceived by hopes of aid from Spain, raised an insurrection against the English Government in Ulster. He burnt Londonderry and maintained his ground for a short period; but the Lord-Deputy Chichester having offered a reward for his head, he retired to the wilds of Kilmacrenan, and was shot by a Scotch settler in his encampment on the rock of Doune. His extensive estates were confiscated and transferred to Chichester, the ancestor of the earls and marquises of Donegal. Shortly afterwards, the colonization of Ulster with English and Scotch undertakers and settlers, in pursuance of the scheme of James I., was partially carried out, and the baronies of Boyleagh and Bannagh were allotted to John Murray; Sir James Cunningham, Sir John Stewart, and others, received the district of Portlough; the London Grocers' Company obtained Muff in Innishowen; Sir Roger Bingley, Sir John Kingsmill, and other English settlers the district round Lifford; Sir William Stewart, Sir John Kingsmill, Sir George Macburie, Captain Hart, Sir M. M'Swine, Turlogh Roe O'Boyle, MacSwine Bannagh, MacSwine Fannet, and other servitors and natives the district of Kilmacrenan. Since the period of the settlement of Ulster, no forfeitures have taken place in this county. The landholders remained loyal in the rebellion of 1841, and also during the war of the Revolution.

This district was formed into the county of Donegal in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, in 1585, by the Lord-Deputy Sir John Perrott. **Antiquities.**—The most noteworthy architectural remains of antiquity in the county are to be found at the head of Lough Swilly, where, situated on the summit of a hill 802 feet high, some remarkable remains exist of a fortress or palace of the Northern Irish kings. These are known as the Griannan of Aileach, and evidently date from a period prior to the 12th century. On Tory island there is one of the best specimens of a round tower and some other interesting remains.

Numerous ruins or ancient castles along the coast prove that much attention was formerly paid to the defence of the country from invasion. The principal are—Kilbarron Castle, an ancient stronghold of the O'Clerys, near Ballyshannon; Donegal Castle, built by the O'Donnells, anciently their chief residence, and now a fine ruin standing close to the water's edge; Burt Castle, built in the reign of Henry VIII. on the shores of Lough Swilly by Sir Cahir O'Dogherty, to whom is also attributed the erection of Green Castle, one of the strongholds of the clan on Lough Foyle.

Near the Castle of Doe, or M'Sweeney's Castle, at Horn Head, is a natural perforation in the roof of a cave, called M'Sweeney's Gun, formed by the workings of the ocean into the overhanging cliff. When the wind blows due north, and the tide is at half flood, the gun is seen to spout up jets of water to a height of 100 feet, attended with explosions heard occasionally in favourable weather at an immense distance. Gulmore Fort, on the coast of Lough Swilly, supposed to have been erected by the O'Doghertys, having come into the possession of the crown, was granted in 1609 to the corporation of London. It was afterwards enlarged or rebuilt, and acted a prominent part in the celebrated siege of Derry.

Traces of religious houses, some existing only in traditional or documentary records, are also numerous. Ashroe Abbey, on a small stream near Ballyshannon, was of great extent. The ruins of that of Donegal, founded in 1474, also afford proofs of its ancient grandeur. It was there that the celebrated collection of ancient Irish annals were written, known by the name of the Annals of the Four Masters, and sometimes called the Annals of Donegal, compiled in the year 1632, by Michael O'Clery and his coadjutors.

DONGOLA, or DONKOLA, a town of Egypt, in the district of the same name in the province of Nubia, situated on the left bank of the Nile, about 45 miles above the Third Cataract. It is frequently styled Dongola Makarah, or New Dongola, to distinguish it from Dongola Agusa, or Old Dongola, a now decadent village 75 miles further up the river, which was formerly a flourishing fortified town, but fell into ruins after the devastation of the Mamelukes. Kasr Dongola, or Castle Dongola, and El Ordeh, or The Barracks, are also names in use. The town grew up round the military and administrative buildings established about 1820 by the Egyptian Government; and it is now a thriving commercial centre, with well-furnished bazaars, an indigo factory, and public baths. The barracks were built after a plan by the celebrated German naturalist Ehrenberg. Population about 6000.

DONIZETTI, GAETANO (1798–1848). There is a strange parallelism observable in the lives of the three most celebrated Italian composers of the present century. Rossini,

Bellini, and Donizetti had no sooner established their reputations on the Italian stage than they left their own country for Paris, at that time the centre of the musical world. All three settled in France, and all three were anxious to adapt the style of their music to the taste and artistic traditions of their adopted country. The difference which exists between Rossini's *Tell* and his *Semiramide* may, although in a less striking degree, be noticed between Donizetti's *Fille du Régiment* and one of his earlier Italian operas. But here the parallel ends. As regards artistic genius Donizetti can by no means be compared with his illustrious countrymen. He has little of Bellini's melancholy sweetness, less of Rossini's sparkle, and is all but devoid of spontaneous dramatic impulse. For these shortcomings he atones by a considerable though by no means extraordinary store of fluent melody, and by his rare skill in writing for the voice. The duet in the last act of the *Favorita* and the celebrated *ensemble* in *Lucia* following upon the signing of the contract, are masterpieces of concerted music in the Italian style. These advantages, together with considerable power of humorous delineation, as evinced in *Don Pasquale* and *L'Elisi d'Amore*, must account for the unimpaired vitality of many of his works on the stage.

The life of Donizetti may be told in few words. He was born at Bergamo in 1798, the son of a Government official of limited means. Originally destined for the bar, he showed at an early age a strong taste for art. At first, strangely enough, he mistook architecture for his vocation, and only after an unsuccessful trial in that direction did he discover his real talent. He entered the conservatoire of his native city, where he studied under Simon Mayr, the fertile operatic composer. His second master was Mattei, the headmaster of the celebrated music school of Bologna, where Donizetti resided for three years. After his return to Bergamo the young composer determined to devote himself to dramatic music, but his father insisted upon his giving lessons with a view to immediate gain. The disputes arising from this cause ultimately led to Donizetti's enlisting in the army. But this desperate step proved beneficial against all expectation. The regiment was quartered at Venice, and here the young composer's first dramatic attempt, an opera called *Enrico Comte di Borgogna*, saw the light in 1818. The success of this work, and of a second opera brought out in the following year, established Donizetti's reputation. He obtained his discharge from the army, and henceforth his operas followed each other in rapid and uninterrupted succession at the rate of three or four a year. Although he had to contend successively with two such dangerous rivals as Rossini and Bellini, he succeeded in taking firm hold of the public, and the brilliant reception accorded to his *Anna Bolena* at Milan carried his name beyond the limits of his own country. In 1835 Donizetti went for the first time to Paris, where, however, his *Marino Faliero* failed to hold its own against Bellini's *Puritani*, then recently produced at the Théâtre Italien. The disappointed composer went to Naples, where the enormous success of his *Lucia di Lammermoor* consoled him for his failure in Paris. For Naples he wrote a number of works, none of which is worth notice. In 1840 the censorship refused to pass his *Poliuto*, an Italian version of Corneille's *Polyeucte*, in consequence of which the disgusted composer once more left his country for Paris. Here he produced at the Opéra Comique his most popular opera, *La Fille du Régiment*, but again with little success. It was not till after the work had made the round of the theatres of Germany and Italy that the Parisians reconsidered their unfavourable verdict. A serious opera, *Les Martyrs*, produced about the same time with the *Daughter of the Regiment*, was equally unsuccessful.