

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	15,387	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 Griann 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 enlistment 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.

fel, and it was reserved to *La Favorita*, generally considered as Donizetti's masterpiece, to break the evil spell. His next important work, *Linda di Chamounix*, was written for Vienna, where it was received most favourably in 1842, and the same success accompanied the production of *Don Pasquale* after Donizetti's return to Paris in 1843. Soon after this event the first signs of a fatal disease, caused to a great extent by overwork, began to show themselves. The utter failure of *Don Sebastian*, a large opera produced soon after *Don Pasquale*, is said to have hastened the catastrophe. A paralytic stroke in 1844 deprived Donizetti of his reason; for four years he lingered on in a state of mental and physical prostration. A visit to his country was proposed as a last resource, but he reached his native place only to die there on April 1st, 1848. The sum total of his operas amounts to 64, the more important of which have been mentioned in the course of this notice. The large number of Donizetti's works at the same time accounts for many of their chief defects. His rapidity of working made all revision impossible. It is said that he once wrote the instrumentation of a whole opera within thirty hours, a time hardly sufficient, one would think, to put the notes on paper. And yet it may be doubted whether more elaboration would have essentially improved his work; for the last act of the *Favorita*, infinitely superior to the preceding ones, is also said to have been the product of a single night.

DONNE, JOHN (1573-1631), poet and divine of the reign of James I., was born in London in 1573 of Catholic parents. His father was a wealthy and influential merchant, a Welshman by descent; his mother claimed relationship with Sir Thomas More and Heywood the epigrammatist. Brought up under a tutor at home until his tenth year, he proceeded to Oxford, and was entered at Hart Hall about 1583. At the university his learning was extraordinary, and he was compared, for juvenile erudition, with Pico della Mirandola. In 1587 he was removed to Trinity College, Cambridge, but he took no degree there or at Oxford, his scruples as a Catholic standing in the way. In 1590 he went up to London and was admitted into Lincoln's Inn. His father presently died, and left his son £3000. Until he came of age, he was under his mother's care, and it is supposed that this was the period to which he refers in *Pseudo-Martyr*, in which an increasing conviction of the truth of Protestantism struggled with the old faith and the familiar surroundings. Walton has given an interesting account of Donne's change of faith, which probably took place about 1592. Before this he must have been writing, for many of the *Divine Poems*, and of these not the worst, are obviously written by a sincere Catholic. The rebound from Catholic asceticism was a severe trial to an ardent nature; it seems that he plunged into various excesses, and that his father's legacy was rapidly squandered. In 1593, however, he had already laid the foundation of his poetic reputation. The first three of his famous *Satires* exist in a MS. dated 1593, and the rest appear to have been composed at various times before 1601. In 1594 he commenced his travels, wandering over Europe, and accompanying the earl of Essex at the taking of Cadiz in 1596, and again in the expedition of 1597. It has been thought that he was engaged in military service in Holland in 1596. He did not return to England until he had seen Italy, and was planning an excursion into Palestine, when the difficulty of travelling in the East diverted his thoughts to Spain. In both Italy and Spain he took considerable pains to master the language and existing literature of each country, as the notes to his works testify. It is possible that the fantastic Spanish school of conceits, which takes its name from Gongora, may have affected the style of Donne. Returning to

England, he secured the patronage of Sir Thomas Egerton, afterwards Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, who appointed him his chief private secretary, and took so much delight in his company and conversation that he made him lodge under his roof. The young poet was five years in Egerton's house, with every prospect of a successful career. He had the misfortune, however, to fall in love with the daughter of Sir George More of Loxly, lord lieutenant of the Tower, who was visiting in the house. Donne's love was returned, but her father violently objected. Recalling her to Loxly, he was enraged to find that the young couple had already been privately married. In his anger, Sir George More not only persuaded Lord Ellesmere to dismiss his secretary, but threw Donne, with his friend Christopher Brooke, the poet, who had given the bride away, into prison. They were soon released, but the father was inexorable, and the young couple would have suffered from penury if it had not been for the generosity of Sir Francis Wooley, who invited them to reside at his house. During these later years Donne had written much in prose and verse. He had completed his *Satires*, and in 1601 he had written his extraordinary poem of *The Progress of the Soul*, which De Quincey has so warmly praised. In 1602 ten sonnets, addressed to Philomel, were printed in Davison's *Poetical Rhapsody*. It is probable that many of his miscellaneous elegies and lyrics date from the same period of early manhood. Among his early works, too, we know was the singular treatise called *Babbiaros*, in praise of suicide, of which he was afterwards ashamed, and which was not printed until long after his death, in 1648. The early follies of his career were now, however, played out, and his temperament was become so grave and earnest that it attracted the attention of Morton, afterwards bishop of Durham, who was staying in the house of Sir Francis Wooley in 1607, and who offered the poet certain preferment in the church, if he would only consent to take holy orders. Donne, however, had conscientious scruples against taking such a step. His generous patron soon after died, and the Donnes took a house at Mitcham, where they resided for two years. It was here that in 1610 he published his prose work against the Catholics, *Pseudo-Martyr*, and in 1611 a still more bitter polemical treatise, *Ignatius his Conclave*. In 1611, moreover, appeared Donne's first poetical work, *The Anatomy of the World*, of which revised and enlarged editions appeared in 1612, 1621, and 1625. This was but a pamphlet, however. He was urged by Sir Robert Drury to come with his wife and their eleven children to reside in his mansion in Drury Lane; after some demur this offer was accepted, but when, almost immediately after their arrival, Sir Robert desired Donne to travel on the Continent with him, Mr. Donne, who was in feeble health, strongly objected. It seems almost certain that this objection caused him to compose one of his loveliest poems—

Sweetest Love, I do not go
For weariness of thee.

He permitted himself to be persuaded, however, and accompanied his patron to Paris, where he is said to have had a vision of his wife, with her hair over her shoulders, bearing a dead child in her arms, on the very night that Mrs. Donne, in London, was delivered of a still-born infant. This was in 1612. In 1613 he published *An Elegy on the Death of Prince Henry*. Efforts were made to gain him preferment at court, but James I., who had conceived a high opinion of Donne's theological gifts, refused to give him a single post out of the church. The poet's scruples were at last removed, and in 1614 he preached in orders before the king at Whitehall. Within a single year fourteen good livings were offered to him; but he refused them all, simply accepting the post of lecturer at Lincoln's Inn. In 1617 the death of his wife was a blow under which his health

so far suffered that he was persuaded by his friends to go abroad, and to spend more than a year in Germany. In 1619 he returned, with the expectation of the deanery of Canterbury. This he did not gain, but in 1620 he was appointed dean of St Paul's. To the kindness of the earl of Dorset he owed the vicarage of St Dunstan in the West. In 1624 he was elected prolocutor to Convocation, and the same year was attacked by an illness that threatened to prove immediately fatal, but from which he rallied. He continued in feeble health for some years, and preached for the last time before Lent 1630, an oration which the king called "the Dean's own funeral sermon," and which was printed, under the title of *Death's Duel*, in 1632. On the 31st of March 1631, he died, having previously wrapped himself in his winding sheet to have his portrait taken. He was buried in St Paul's cathedral. Very few of Dr. Donne's writings were published during his life-time. It is supposed that an edition of the *Satires* may have been printed before the close of the 16th century, but if so, it has entirely disappeared. His poems were first collected in 1633, and afterwards in 1635, 1639, 1649, 1650, 1654, and 1669, of which editions the second and last appear to be tolerably trustworthy. Of his prose works the *Juvenilia* appeared in 1633; the *LXXX. Sermons*, with an admirable life of the author by Izaak Walton, in 1640; the *Essays in Divinity* in 1650; and the *Letters to Several Persons of Honour* in 1651. No very excellent modern biography of the poet or edition of his works has been issued. Dr. A. B. Grosart's privately printed edition of the poetical works is very complete.

It is singularly difficult to pronounce a judicious opinion on the writings of Donne. They were excessively admired by his own and the next generation, praised by Dryden, paraphrased by Pope, and then entirely neglected for a whole century. The first impression of an unbiassed reader who dips into the poems of Donne is unfavourable. He is repulsed by the intolerably harsh and crabbed versification, by the recondite choice of theme and expression, and by the oddity of the thought. In time, however, he perceives that behind the fantastic garb of language there is an earnest and vigorous mind, an imagination that harbours fire within its cloudy folds, and an insight into the mysteries of spiritual life which is often startling. Donne excels in brief flashes of wit and beauty, and in sudden daring phrases that have the full perfume of poetry in them. Some of his lyrics and one or two of his elegies excepted, the *Satires* are his most important contribution to literature. They are probably the first poems of their kind in the language, and they are full of force and picturesqueness. Their obscure and knotty language only serves to give peculiar brilliancy to the not uncommon passages of noble perspicacity. To the odd terminology of Donne's poetic philosophy Dryden gave the name of metaphysics, and Johnson, borrowing the suggestion, invented the title of the metaphysical school to describe, not Donne only, but all the amorous and philosophical poets who succeeded him, and who employed a similarly fantastic language, and who affected odd figurative inversions. (E. W. G.)

DONOVAN, EDWARD, naturalist, was author of many popular works on natural history and botany. In 1792 appeared the first volume of his *Natural History of British Insects*, which extended to sixteen volumes, and was completed in 1816. Although now superseded, this compilation did good service in its time. During the same period Donovan published *Natural Histories of British Birds*, in 10 vols. 8vo. (1799-1819), of *British Fishes*, in 5 vols. (1802-1808), of *British Shells*, in 5 vols. (1800-1804), a series of illustrated works on *The Insects of India, China, New Holland, &c.*, in 3 vols. 4to (1798-1805), and *Excursions in South Wales and Monmouthshire* (1805).

To these works must be added his periodical entitled *The Naturalist's Repository*, a monthly publication, of which three volumes were completed (1823-1825), and an *Essay on the Minute Parts of Plants in general*. Donovan was author of the articles on natural history in Rees's *Cyclopædia*. In his old age this hard-working student and writer published a *Memorial respecting my Publications in Natural History*, in which he complains of the small profits accruing to him from the sale of his books. We have searched in vain for any biographical particulars of Donovan,—the only facts apparently recorded being that he was a fellow of the Linnean Society, and that he died in London, February 1, 1837.

DORAT, JEAN. See DAURAT.

DORCHESTER (the *Durnovaria* of the Romans), a parliamentary and municipal borough and market town of England, capital of the county of Dorset, situated on an eminence on the right bank of the Frome, 8 miles N. of Weymouth, and 120 miles from London by the old coach road, but some 20 miles farther by railway. It stands within a wide open tract of land, containing 3400 acres, held under the duchy of Cornwall, called Fordington Field. It is governed by a mayor, four aldermen, and twelve councillors, and returns one member to parliament. The population of the borough in 1871 was 6915; the area 635 acres. The town, consisting chiefly of three spacious streets, is neat and pleasantly situated, and is nearly surrounded by fine avenues. St Peter's church is an ancient edifice in the Perpendicular style, containing some curious monuments. The grammar school has two exhibitions to St John's College, Cambridge, and one to each university. Of the other public buildings the principal are—the town-hall, with market-house, shire-hall, county prison, and county hospital; there is also a small county museum, containing many local objects of much interest. The cavalry barracks in the vicinity may also be noticed. There are also several almshouses and other charities, and a savings-bank. Market-days, Wednesday and Saturday. The woollen manufacture of Dorchester was once considerable, and it was noted also for its ale, of which there are still some popular breweries. It is a place of considerable trade, and large sheep and lamb fairs are held there annually. The borough includes four parishes—All-Saints, St Peter's, Holy Trinity, and Fordington. In the vicinity there are some interesting Roman remains, including an amphitheatre, the most perfect of its kind in England. The seats for the spectators are formed of masses of chalk, rising 30 feet above the arena. This amphitheatre when perfect is supposed to have been capable of accommodating 13,000 spectators. The camp called Poundbury, to the N.W. of the town, is probably Roman, and well worthy of examination. Durnovaria was one of the principal stations in England of the Romans, by whom it was surrounded with a wall and fosse, part of the former being still standing. Here Judge Jeffreys's "bloody assize" was held in September 1685, when 292 prisoners were sentenced to death. DORDOGNE, an inland department in the S.E. of France, taking its name from the river which traverses its centre from east to west, and formed from nearly the whole of Périgord, a part of Agénaïs, and small portions of Limousin and of Angoumois. It is bounded on the N. by Haute Vienne, W. by Charente and Charente Inférieure, S.W. by Gironde, S. by Lot-et-Garonne, and E. by Lot and Corrèze, and lies between 44° 45' and 45° 42' N. lat., and from 0° 1' 51" to 1° 26' 49" W. long. Its surface is beautifully variegated, comprising small mountains.—some



Arms of Dorchester.

of which are covered with vines and crowned with wood, and others rocky and barren,—large plateaus, and a few pleasant valleys. In the north it is wild and sterile, and in the west is covered with forests of pine, but the splendid valley watered by the Dordogne is rich in vines, fruit trees, and cereals. The climate is generally agreeable and healthy, but rather humid, especially in the south. Dordogne is watered by 11 rivers and more than 600 streams, all tributaries of the Dordogne except the Bandiat and the Dropt. The Dordogne itself is formed by the union of two mountain streams, the Dor and the Dogne, which rise in Mont d'Or, Puy-de-Dôme, and unite after a short course. Sufficient corn is grown in the department for home consumption. The cultivation of the vine occupies about a tenth of its surface, and its red and white wines are in high repute. Its truffles are considered the best in France. In the forests the prevailing trees are the oak and chestnut. The fruit of the latter is much used both as food by the people and for fattening hogs. The walnut is extensively cultivated for making oil. Dordogne is rich in various kinds of minerals; iron is very abundant, and there are found also copper, lead, manganese, coal, marble, alabaster, lithographic stones, lime of gypsum, &c. The chief branches of industry are the working in metals, particularly iron and steel, the manufacture of paper, and boat-building; but there are also produced coarse woollens, serges, leather, earthenware, hosiery, vinegar, brandy, and liqueurs. Dordogne is divided into the arrondissements Périgueux, Bergerac, Nontron, Ribérac, and Sarlat, with 47 cantons and 582 communes. The chief town is Périgueux. The total area is 3545 square miles, and the population in 1872 numbered 480,142.

DORIA, ANDREA (1466–1560), the famous Genoese admiral, was born at Oneglia in 1466. He belonged to a noble family, several of whose members, both before and after his time, distinguished themselves in the history of Genoa. Having lost both his parents in his youth, he embraced the military profession, and served in the papal guards and under various princes of Italy. It was not until he was fifty years of age that he entered into the service of Francis I. of France, who gave him the command of his fleet in the Mediterranean. In this position he preserved that spirit of independence which is so natural to a sailor and a republican. When the French attempted to render Savona, long the object of jealousy to Genoa, its rival in trade, Doria remonstrated strongly against the measure; this irritated Francis to such a degree that early in 1528 he ordered his admiral Barbesieux to sail for Genoa; then in the hands of the French troops, to arrest Doria, and to seize his galleys. Doria, however, retired with all his galleys to a place of safety, and closing with the offers of the emperor Charles V., returned his commission to Francis, and hoisted the imperial colours. To deliver his country, now weary alike of the French and the imperial yoke, from the dominion of foreigners, was Doria's highest ambition; and the favourable moment had presented itself. Genoa was afflicted with the pestilence, the French garrison was ill paid and greatly reduced, and the inhabitants were sufficiently disposed to second his views. Before the close of the same year (1528) he sailed to the harbour with thirty galleys, landed five hundred men, and made himself master of the gates and the palace with very little resistance. The French governor with his feeble garrison retired to the citadel, but was soon forced to capitulate; upon which the people speedily levelled the citadel with the ground. It was now in Doria's power to have declared himself the sovereign of his country; but, with a magnanimity of which there are few examples, he assembled the people in the court before the palace, disclaimed all pre-eminence, and recommended to them to settle what form

of government they chose to establish. The people, animated by his spirit, forgot their factions, and fixed, with his approval, that republican form of government which, with little variation, subsisted until 1815. His disinterested patriotism won for him the appointment of censor for life and the title "Father and Liberator of his Country." Doria afterwards engaged in an expedition against the Turks, from whom he took Coroa and Patras. He also co-operated with Charles V. in the reduction of Tunis and Goulette. In 1547 two successive attempts were made against his life by Fieschi and a Genoese emigrant of the name of Giulio Cibo. He resigned his command in 1556, and died at Genoa in November 1560, being then ninety-four years of age.

DORIANS, the name by which one of the two foremost races of the Hellenic or Greek people was commonly known, the other being the Ionic. These two races, if the term may here be rightly used, stand out in marked contrast, as exhibiting different types of character, which have their issue in different modes of thought and forms of government. But when from a consideration of their political and intellectual development we endeavour to work our way backward to the origin and early history of these races, we find ourselves confronted by traditions which show little consistency, or which even exclude each other. The writer who speaks with the greatest confidence on this subject is the perfectly truthful man who well earned his title to be known as the father of history; but Herodotus, although thoroughly to be trusted as to all that he relates from his own experience, could not rise much above the standard of his age in dealing with alleged matters of fact, nor could he see that the eking out of theory by conjecture is an illegitimate process. Herodotus then, in speaking of the Athenians and Spartans as standing at the head severally of the Dorian and Ionian races, states positively that the Ionian was a Pelasgic, the Dorian a Hellenic people; that the former had always been stationary, while the latter had many times changed its abode. In the time of Deucalion, he asserts, the Dorians, or rather the tribe or tribes which were afterwards to be called Dorians, inhabited Phthiotis, by which he probably understands the southern portion of the great Thessalian plain. Afterwards, under their eponymus Dorus, they occupied Histiaeotis, which he describes as the region under Ossa and Olympus. They had thus migrated from the most southerly to the most northerly parts of the great plain which is drained by the Peneius. The next migration was to the highlands of Pindus, the chain which runs down at right angles from the Cambunian range, or the westward extension of Olympus. Here, he says, they were known not as Dorians, but as Macedonians. A later southward migration brought them into Dryopis, whence they made their way into the Peloponnesus, and it would seem were then only first known as Dorians (Herod. i. 56).

If we examine the statement thus boldly advanced, we shall find at each step that the ground becomes more uncertain. We may indeed, in order to explain it, assume that the Pelasgic race was closely akin to the Greek, and that their language stood midway between the Hellenic and the Latin; but if we do so we are reasoning strictly from the point of view of modern philology, and really abandoning that of Herodotus, who says that, if he may judge from the Pelasgian populations which he found at Placia, Scylace, and Creston, the Pelasgians generally must have spoken a barbarous dialect, *i. e.*, a dialect unintelligible to a Greek. He is thus driven to assume, first, that the Attic tribes had been Pelasgic before they became Hellenic, and that the change was accompanied by a change of language (Herod. i. 57). Elsewhere (ii. 51) he speaks of the Athenians as being already Greek or Hellenic before

the Pelasgians became their neighbours, and adds that the latter came in time to be reckoned Hellenic also. We thus see, without going further, how vague and misty were the notions of Herodotus; but we have to note further that the account here given of the Dorians and Ionians is said to apply to the time of Croesus, and thus, down to his age, the Ionians had been stationary in their original abodes, these abodes in his day being assuredly not in the Peloponnesus. Yet he can assert elsewhere that the Peloponnesus had been their original home, and that they had been expelled from it by the Achæians (i. 145). But, apart from the fact that the poets of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* know nothing of any expulsion of Ionians from Peloponnesus, the difficulties are increased if we betake ourselves to the tribal genealogies which the Greeks regarded as undoubtedly historical documents. We have then, on the one side, the assertion that the Ionians were originally non-Hellenic and Pelasgian; on the other, the Iapetid genealogy speaks of Dorians, Achæians, Ionians, and Æolians, as being all sprung from Hellen,—Xouthus, the son of Hellen, being the father of Ion and Achæius. If, therefore, we were to argue from these data, we should have to conclude that, as the tribes just mentioned were all Hellenic, and as the Ionians were Pelasgians, some Pelasgians at least were Hellenes. But the whole process would be deceptive, for as Ion and Achæius are here the sons of Xouthus, the Ionians would be expelled from the Peloponnesus by their nearest brethren. It is, however, more important to note that the opinion of Herodotus respecting the Pelasgi was distinctly contradicted by another, which had the countenance of Strabo, Plutarch, and other writers. Strabo speaks of them as virtually nomadic tribes; and the story even went that they received their name, Pelasgi = Pelargoi, or Storks, from their wandering habits. It is difficult to resist the inference of Sir G. Cornewall Lewis that this radical inconsistency in the views respecting the Pelasgians is a proof that they rest on no historical basis (*Credibility of Early Roman History*, i. 282). Further, there is the extreme unlikelihood that the tribes afterwards known as Dorians should for a certain period have been called Macedonians, or rather, as Herodotus implies, that they should more than once change their name. The assertion that they were called Macedonians involves a fresh contradiction, for elsewhere Herodotus asserts that the Macedonians were not Hellenic at all, although they were governed by chiefs of genuine Greek descent. Nor is our position improved if we choose to prefer the statements of the genealogies in preference to those of Herodotus or other historians, on the ground that the national tradition by which these genealogies were handed down must be trustworthy, for the descent in one genealogy is often directly contradicted by that of another, and not unfrequently, and indeed ever generally, the genealogy betrays the nature of the materials from which it has been made up. Thus, for instance, Dorus, the eponymus of the Dorians, has as his sister Protogeneia (the Early Dawn), who, being wedded to Zeus, the god of the gleaming heaven, becomes the mother of Æthlius, the toiling sun, who is the father of Endymion, that is, of the sun-god who sinks to sleep in Latmus, the land of forgetfulness. Finally, we have to note the fact that, in the Hellenic world as elsewhere, tribes bearing the same name were found separated by great distances; and in such cases traditions always sprang up, not merely asserting their connection, but accounting for it. Thus they found Achæians in Thessaly and Achæians in the Peloponnesus; and it was said, not merely that the former passed southwards across the isthmus of Corinth, but that they were led by the barbarian Pelops from Phrygia. The same process connected the Peloponnesian Dorians with the

Dorian clans who dwelt between Ceta and Parnassus, and spoke of the latter as the stock from which the Spartans sprang, to the great benefit of the insignificant clans, who thus acquired a foremost rank in the Hellenic world.

All that we can do, then, is to bring together the genealogies which refer in any way to Dorus and his supposed descendants the Dorians, and then gather from historians and geographers the various regions in which Dorians were found during ages which may reasonably be regarded as historical. The result of the former process will scarcely appear satisfactory. We have noticed one genealogy which represents Dorus as the son of Hellen; but in the Etolian genealogy he is the son of Apollo and Phthia, and is slain by Ætolus in the land which from him was called Etolia (Grote, *Hist. Gr.*, i. 140). The great tradition which connects the Dorians of the Peloponnesus with their more noteworthy namesakes is the legend which relates the return of the Heraclids, or descendants of Hercules, who, after the death of that hero, had been compelled to take refuge in Athens. Hyllus, in his exile, is adopted by the Dorian king Ægimius, the father of Pamphylus and Dymas, who with Hyllus become the eponymi or name-givers of the three tribes found in Dorian communities generally, and known as Hylleans, Pamphylians, and Dymanes, Hyllus being more particularly illustrious as the forefather of Eurysthenes and Procles, the progenitors of the two houses from which the Spartan kings were always elected. But this legend, like the rest, was variously related, and, according to the version of Plato, the return of the Heraclids would be rather a return of the Achæians to the Peloponnesus.

We cannot, however, question the fact that the Dorian race was widely extended, that it was found, like the Ionians, in various portions of the Hellenic world, separated by considerable distances of land or sea, and that the people who bore this name were singularly active in the work of colonization. They are found not only in all parts of the Peloponnesus but in the islands of the Ægean, and on the coasts of Asia Minor; and from the foremost Dorian cities went forth, it is said, the colonists who were to carry the Hellenic name and Hellenic culture far to the east and the west. Thus Corinth became the mother city of Coreyra and Syracuse, and from these sprang Epidamnus, Camarina, Ambracia, Potidæa. The Dorians of Crete and Rhodes sent forth the settlers of the Sicilian Gela, and Gela in turn became the parent of the mightier Acragas, or Agrigentum, while to Megara is assigned the origin of Byzantium, the future home of Roman Cæsars and of Ottoman Sultans. These several communities exhibit a general likeness in their dialect, their art, and their polity. Their civilization assumed a magnificent phase in the splendour of Corinth and the great Dorian cities of Italy and Sicily. Their powers of resistance were attested by the success with which their colonies were planted in regions occupied by powerful and hostile tribes, who failed to overthrow them simply because they lacked the Dorian power of cohesion. Yet with the Dorians this power was subjected to strictly defined bounds of action. All Dorian cities might feel a pride in belonging to the great Dorian stock, and the parent city might claim certain prerogatives in its colonies; but each city was for them nevertheless an absolute unit, with whose independence no other city had any right to interfere, even though this interference might have for its object the establishment of a pan-Hellenic union. Any movements in this direction were sure to rouse the keenest and most persistent opposition of the Dorian Greeks; and thus we can understand the nature of the quarrel which was fought out between Sparta and Athens, and which ended in the ruin of the great Ionian city, whose imperial rule must otherwise have checked, and may perhaps have rooted out,