

popular vote was against him, but in the legislature vote he secured his return by 54 to 46. Douglas paid great attention to the local affairs of Illinois, and he was the chief promoter of the Illinois Central Railroad. In 1860 he was again one of the Democratic candidates for the presidency, and received a large popular vote, but he was very feebly supported in the electoral college. On the outbreak of the civil war he denounced secession as criminal, and was one of the strongest advocates of maintaining the integrity of the Union at all hazards. He delivered frequent addresses in this sense after the adjournment of Congress, and during his last illness he dictated a letter for publication urging all patriotic men to sustain the Union and the constitution. He died at Chicago on the 3d June 1861.

DOUR, a town of Belgium, in the province of Hainault, nine miles south-west of Mons, to the right of the railway from that city to Valenciennes. It owes its whole importance to its manufacturing industry, which includes iron-smelting, weaving, bleaching, and tanning, and is fostered by the existence in the vicinity of coal and iron mines. Population in 1866, 8501.

DOUSA, JANUS [JAN VAN DER DOES] (1545-1604), a distinguished Dutch statesman, historian, poet, and philologist, the heroic defender of Leyden, was born at Noordwyck, in the province of Holland, December 6, 1545. Left an orphan at the age of five, he was brought up by his grandfather, after whose death an uncle took charge of him. He began his studies at Lier in Brabant, became a pupil of Henry Junius at Delft in 1560, and thence passed successively to Louvain, Douai, and Paris. Here he studied Greek under Peter Dorat, professor at the Collège Royal, and became acquainted with the Chancellor L'Hôpital, Turnebus, Ronsard, and other eminent men. On his return to Holland in 1565 he married. His name stands in the list of nobles who in that year formed a league against Philip II.; but he does not appear to have taken any active part in public affairs till 1572, when he was sent as head of an embassy to England. Two years later he was intrusted with the government and defence of Leyden, then besieged by the Spaniards; and in this arduous post he displayed rare intelligence, fortitude, and practical wisdom. On the foundation of the university of Leyden by William I. of Orange, Dousa was appointed first curator, and this office he held for nearly thirty years. Through his friendships with foreign scholars he drew to Leyden many illustrious teachers and professors. After the assassination of William I. in 1584, Dousa came privately to England to seek the aid of Queen Elizabeth, and in the following year he was sent formally for the same purpose. About the same time he was appointed keeper of the Dutch archives, and the opportunities thus afforded him of literary and historical research he turned to good account. In 1591, being named a member of the States-General, he removed to the Hague. Heavy blows fell upon him in the deaths of his eldest son in 1597 and of his second son three years later. A bitter trial still was the misconduct of another son. Dousa was author of several volumes of Latin verse and of philological notes on Horace, Catullus, Tibullus, Petronius Arbiter, and Plautus. But his principal work is the *Annals of Holland*, which first appeared in a metrical form in 1599, and was published in prose, under the title of *Bataviae Hollandicæque Annales*, in 1601. This work had been begun by his eldest son. Dousa also took part, as editor or contributor, in various other publications. He died at Noordwyck, October 8, 1604, and was interred at the Hague; but no monument was erected to his memory until 1792, when one of his descendants placed a tomb in his honour in the church of Noordwyck.

DOUVILLE, JEAN BAPTISTE (1794-c. 1837), a French traveller born at Hambye, in the department of Manche, whose asserted discoveries in Africa have in large measure been relegated to the region of romance. At an early period his imagination seems to have been fired by narratives of travel and adventure; and accordingly, when he fell heir to a wealthy relation, he at once proceeded to gratify his desire for personal acquaintance with foreign lands. He certainly wandered far and wide; and, according to his own profession, he visited India, Kashmir, Khorassan, Persia, Asia Minor, and many parts of Europe. After spending some time in Paris, and being admitted a member of the Société de Géographie, he proceeded in 1826 to Brazil, with the intention apparently of carrying on scientific explorations: from this purpose, however, he was diverted by the political circumstances of the country; and to replenish his funds he started business at Montevideo in partnership with a M. Laboisnière. Towards the close of the following year, probably in October, after a short residence at Rio Janeiro, he left Brazil for the Portuguese possessions on the west coast of Africa, where his presence in March 1828 is proved by the mention made of him in certain letters of Castillo Branco, the governor-general of Loanda. In May 1831 he reappeared in France, claiming to have pushed his explorations into the very heart of Africa, as far as the 27th degree of longitude E. of Greenwich, or, in other words, into what is now known as the great equatorial lake region. His story was readily accepted by the Société de Géographie at Paris, which hastened to recognize his services by assigning him the great gold medal, and appointing him their secretary for the year 1832. On the publication of his narrative—*Voyage au Congo et dans l'intérieur de l'Afrique équinoxiale*—which occupied four large volumes, and was accompanied by an elaborate atlas, the public enthusiasm might well run high. In company with his wife (a sister of his old Montevideo partner), and attended by about 400 native porters, the happy traveller had advanced from kingdom to kingdom rather like a monarch making a progress through his tributary states, distributing largesses and receiving homage, than like a humble adventurer defraying his expenses from his private purse. Everything went smooth for a time; the interior of Africa was described in text books and depicted in maps according to the discoveries of Douville; but in the August number of the *Foreign Quarterly Review* for 1832 the most sweeping charges of ignorance and fraud were launched against the author, and this attack was followed up in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for November, by Thomas Lacordaire, who asserted that, during part of the time which he claimed to have spent in Africa, Douville had been a familiar object in the streets of Rio Janeiro. The tide of popular favour turned; and, in spite of the explanations furnished by Douville in *Ma défense*, 1832, and *Trente mois de ma vie, ou quinze mois avant et quinze mois après mon voyage au Congo*, 1833, the general decision was openly against him. Mlle. Andrun, a lady to whom he was about to be married, committed suicide from grief at the disgrace; and, after vainly attempting to obtain satisfaction from Lacordaire by duel, the poor adventurer himself withdrew in 1833 to Brazil, and proceeded to make explorations in the valley of the Amazon. According to Dr Gardner, in his *Travels in the Interior of Brazil*, he was murdered in 1837 on the banks of the São Francisco for charging too high for his medical assistance. His Brazilian manuscripts fell into the hands of M. S. Rang, by whom they were transmitted to M. Ferdinand Denis. While modern exploration has done nothing to support the wider pretensions of Douville, no less an authority than Captain Burton asserts that his descriptions of the country of the Congo are life-like and

picturesque; that his observations on the anthropology, ceremonies, customs, and maladies of the people are remarkably accurate; and that even the native words inserted into the text of his narrative "are for the most part given with unusual correctness."

DOUW, or Dow, GERHARD (1613-1680), a celebrated Flemish painter, was born at Leyden on the 7th April 1613. His first instructor in drawing and design was Bartholomew Dolendo, an engraver; and he afterwards learned the art of glass-painting under Peter Kouwhoorn. At the age of fifteen he became a pupil of Rembrandt, with whom he continued for three years. From the great master of the Flemish school he acquired his skill in colouring, and in the more subtle effects of chiaroscuro; and the style of Rembrandt is reflected in several of his earlier pictures, notably in a portrait of himself at the age of twenty-two, in the Bridgewater Gallery, and in the Blind Tobit going to meet his Son, at Wardour Castle. At a comparatively early point in his career, however, he had formed a manner of his own distinct from, and indeed in some respects antagonistic to, that of his master. Gifted with unusual clearness of vision and precision of manipulation, he cultivated a minute and elaborate style of treatment; and probably few painters ever spent more time and pains on all the details of their pictures down to the most trivial. He is said to have spent five days in painting a hand; and his work was so fine that he found it necessary to manufacture his own brushes. Notwithstanding the minuteness of his touch, however, the general effect was harmonious and free from stiffness, and his colour was always admirably fresh and transparent. He was fond of representing subjects in lantern or candle light, the effects of which he reproduced with a fidelity and skill which no other master has equalled. He frequently painted by the aid of a concave mirror, and to obtain exactness looked at his subject through a frame crossed with squares of silk thread. His practice as a portrait painter, which was at first considerable, gradually declined, sitters being unwilling to give him the time that he deemed necessary. His pictures were always small in size, and represented chiefly subjects in still life. Upwards of two hundred are attributed to him, and specimens are to be found in most of the great public collections of Europe. His *chef d'œuvre* is generally considered to be the Woman sick of the Dropsy, in the Louvre. The Evening School, in the Amsterdam Gallery, is the best example of the candle-light scenes in which he excelled. In the National Gallery favourable specimens are to be seen in the Poulterer's Shop and a portrait of himself. Douw's pictures brought high prices, and it is said that President Van Spiring of the Hague paid him 1000 florins a year simply for the right of pre-emption. Douw died in 1680. His most celebrated pupil was Francis Mieris.

DOVE (Dutch, *Duyve*; Danish, *Due*; Icelandic, *Dufa*; German, *Taube*), a name which seems to be most commonly applied to the smaller members of the group of birds by ornithologists usually called Pigeons (*Columbæ*); but no sharp distinction can be drawn between Pigeons and Doves, and in general literature the two words are used almost indifferently, while no one species can be pointed out to which the word Dove, taken alone, seems to be absolutely proper. The largest of the group to which the name is applicable is perhaps the Ring-Dove, or Wood-Pigeon, also called in many parts of Britain Cushat and Queest (*Columba palumbus*, Linn.), a very common bird throughout these islands and most parts of Europe. It associates in winter in large flocks, the numbers of which (owing partly to the destruction of predacious animals, but still more to the modern system of agriculture, and the growth of plantations in many districts that were before treeless) have of late

years increased enormously, so that their depredations are very serious. In former days, when the breadth of land in Britain under green crops was comparatively small, these birds found little food in the dead season, and this scarcity was a natural check on their superabundance. But since the extended cultivation of turnips and plants of similar use the case is altered, and perhaps at no time of the year has provender become more plentiful than in winter. The Ring-Dove may be easily distinguished from other European species by its larger size, and especially by the white spot on either side of its neck, forming a nearly continuous "ring," whence the bird takes its name, and the large white patches in its wings, which are very conspicuous in flight. It breeds several times in the year, making for its nest a slight platform of sticks on the horizontal bough of a tree, and laying therein two eggs—which, as in all the *Columbæ*, are white.

The Stock-Dove (*C. ænas* of most authors) is a smaller species, with many of the habits of the former, but breeding by preference in the stocks of hollow trees or in rabbit-holes. It is darker in colour than the Ring-Dove, without any white on its neck or wings, and is much less common and more locally distributed.

The Rock-Dove (*C. livia*, Temm.) much resembles the Stock-Dove, but is of a lighter colour, with two black bars on its wings, and a white rump. In its wild state it haunts most of the rocky parts of the coast of Europe, from the Færoes to the Cyclades, and, seldom going inland, is comparatively rare. Yet, as it is without contradiction the parent-stem of all our domestic Pigeons, its numbers must far exceed those of both the former put together. In Egypt and various parts of Asia it is represented by what Mr Darwin has called "Wild Races," which are commonly accounted good "species" (*C. schimperi*, *C. affinis*, *C. intermedia*, *C. leuconota*, and so forth), though they differ from one another far less than do nearly all the domestic forms, of which more than 150 kinds that "breed true," and have been separately named, are known to exist. Very many of these, if found wild, would have unquestionably been ranked by the best ornithologists as distinct "species," and several of them would as undoubtedly have been placed in different genera. These various breeds are classified by Mr Darwin in four groups as follows:—

GROUP I. composed of a single Race, that of the "Pouters," having the gullet of great size, barely separated from the crop, and often inflated, the body and legs elongated, and a moderate bill. The most strongly marked subrace, the *Improved English Pouter*, is considered to be the most distinct of all domesticated pigeons.

GROUP II. includes three Races:—(1.) "Carriers," with a long pointed bill, the eyes surrounded by much bare skin, and the neck and body much elongated; (2.) "Runts," with a long, massive bill, and the body of great size; and (3.) "Barbs," with a short, broad bill, much bare skin round the eyes, and the skin over the nostrils swollen. Of the first four and of the second five subraces are distinguished.

GROUP III. is confessedly artificial, and to it are assigned five Races:—(1.) "Fan-tails," remarkable for the extraordinary development of their tails, which may consist of as many as forty-two rectrices in place of the ordinary twelve; (2.) "Turbits" and "Owls," with the feathers of the throat diverging, and a short thick bill; (3.) "Tumblers," possessing the marvellous habit of tumbling backwards during flight or, in some breeds, even on the ground, and having a short, conical bill; (4.) "Frill-backs," in which the feathers are reversed; and (5.) "Jacobins," with the feathers of the neck forming a hood, and the wings and tail long.

GROUP IV. greatly resembles the normal form, and comprises two Races:—(1.) "Trumpeters," with a tuft of feathers at the base of the neck curling forward, the face much feathered, and a very peculiar voice, and (2.) Pigeons scarcely differing in structure from the wild stock.

Besides these some three or four other little-known breeds exist, and the whole number of breeds and sub-breeds

<sup>1</sup> *The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication*. London: 1868. Vol. I. pp. 131-224.

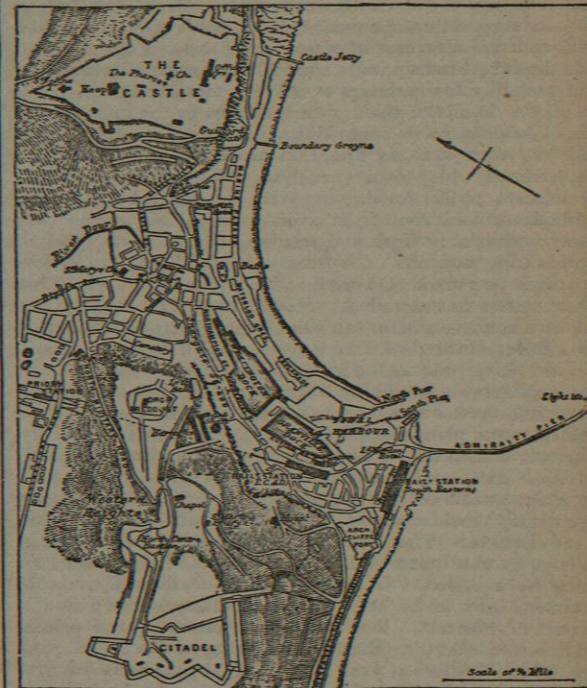
almost defies computation. The difference between them is in many cases far from being superficial, for Mr Darwin has shown that there is scarcely any part of the skeleton which is constant, and the modifications that have been effected in the proportions of the head and sternal apparatus are very remarkable. Yet the proof that all these different birds have descended from one common stock is nearly certain. Here there is no need to point out its bearing upon the "Theory of Natural Selection" which that eminent naturalist and Mr Wallace have rendered so well known. The antiquity of some of these breeds is not the least interesting part of the subject, nor is the use to which one at least of them has long been applied. The Dove from the earliest period in history has been associated with the idea of a messenger (Genesis viii. 8-12), and its employment in that capacity, developed successively by Greeks, Romans, Mussulmans, and Christians, has never been more fully made available than in our own day, as witness the "Pigeon-post" established during the recent siege of Paris.

Leaving, then, this interesting subject, space does not permit our here dwelling on various foreign species, which, if not truly belonging to the genus *Columba*, are barely separable therefrom. Of these examples may be found in the Indian, Ethiopian, and Neotropical Regions. Still less can we here enter upon the innumerable other forms, though they may be entitled to the name of "Dove," which are to be found in almost every part of the world, and nowhere more abundantly than in the Australian Region. Mr Wallace (*Ibis*, 1865, pp. 365-400) considers that they attain their maximum development in the Papuan Subregion, where, though the land-area is less than one-sixth that of Europe, more than a quarter of all the species (some 300 in number) known to exist are found—owing, he suggests, to the absence of forest-haunting and fruit-eating Mammals.

It would, however, be impossible to conclude this article without noticing a small group of birds to which in some minds the name Dove will seem especially applicable. This is the group containing the Turtle-Doves—the time-honoured emblem of tenderness and conjugal love. The common Turtle-Dove of Europe (*Turtur auritus*) is one of those species which is gradually extending its area. In England, not much more than a century ago, it seems to have been chiefly, if not solely, known in the southern and western counties. Though in the character of a straggler only, it now reaches the extreme north of Scotland, and is perhaps nowhere more abundant than in many of the midland and eastern counties of England. On the continent the same thing has been observed, though indeed not so definitely; and this species has within the last twenty years or so appeared as a casual visitor within the Arctic Circle. The probable causes of its extension cannot here be discussed; and there is no need to dwell upon its graceful form and the delicate harmony of its modest colouring, for they are proverbial. The species is migratory, reaching Europe late in April and retiring in September. Another species, and one perhaps better known from being commonly kept in confinement, is that called by many the Collared or Barbary Dove (*T. risorius*)—the second English name probably indicating that it was by way of that country that it was brought to us, for it is not an African bird. This is distinguished by its cream-coloured plumage and black necklace. Some uncertainty seems to exist about its original home, but it is found from Constantinople to India, and is abundant in the Holy Land, though there a third species (*T. senegalensis*) also occurs, which Canon Tristram thinks is the Turtle-Dove of Scripture. (A. N.)

DOVER (the ancient Dubris), principal cinque port of England, is situated close to the South Foreland, 72 miles

from London, in a main valley of the chalk hills corresponding with the opposite cliffs between Calais and Boulogne. Its dominant object is the castle, on the east heights. Within its walls stands the Roman pharos; the Romano-British fortress church, remaining not only *in situ*, but (excepting roof) integrally *in statu quo*, forming a primitive Christian relic, unique in Christendom; some remains of the Saxon fort; and the massive keep and subsidiary defences of Norman building. These ancient works provide for a garrison of 758; but they are now covered by the superior site of Fort Burgoyne, a position of great strength for 221 men. The western heights, where is still the foundation of a cossort Roman pharos, form a circuit of elaborate fortifications, with provision for 3010 troops. Between these, and stretching inland, lies the town, of which the following are the principal features. 1. The harbour, once at the eastern, is now at the western extremity,—its three considerable basins being fit for mail steamers and ordinary trading vessels. 2. The admiralty pier is a massive struc-



Plan of Dover.

ture of solid concrete and masonry extending about one-third of a mile into the sea, affording lee and landing accommodation for vessels of almost any burthen, made for ultimate connection by break-water with a horn east of the castle, so inclosing the bay as a vast harbour. 3. The visitors' quarter consists of ranges of good houses along the length of the seaboard and elsewhere, notably a fine elevation newly built on a western spur of the Castle Hill. 4. Of old Dover, within its walls and gates, but little remains, except a remnant of the Saxon collegiate church of the canons of St Martin, and the parish church of St Mary the Virgin—rebuilt and enlarged in 1843-44, but preserving the three bays of the Anglo-Saxon church, with its western narthex, on which had been superimposed the Norman tower, still presenting its rich front to the street. 5. A later Norman church stands under the Castle Hill, which has been partially restored, but its parochial status trans-

ferred to the new parish church of St James. There are two other modern churches—Holy Trinity and Christ-church, and, further up the valley, the parish church of Charlton (originally Norman) and Buckland (Early English), which, including the Castle Church, completes the former number of seven for the town. There are also 13 chapels of nonconformist worship, representing most denominations, and placed in various parts of the borough. 6. The remains of the once (12th century) splendid foundation of St Martin's priory include the great gate, the house refectory with campanile, and the spacious strangers' refectory, lately converted into the college school-room. 7. Just across the High Street stand the tower and truncated fabric of the noble hall of the hospital Maison Dieu, founded (13th century) for the reception of pilgrims of all nations, long used as a Crown victualling office, but latterly purchased by the corporation and adapted for a



Corporation Seal.

town hall, with prison cells as basements, and other prison buildings annexed, the former chapel of the society serving now as a court of sessions. 8. The ground work of a round (Holy Sepulchre) church of the Templars is on the opposite heights, approaching the citadel. 9. Among the centres of educational work are a proprietary college, occupying the site and remaining buildings of St Martin's Priory, for a cheap but sound education of town boys, and for boarders in the masters' houses, and also a strong array of national schools, worked up to a high mark, according to H. M. Inspectors' reports, and providing means for a good practical education of about 3400 children. In physical conditions the place is exceptionally healthy, the registrar-general's returns showing them in some years to be little below those of the Malvern Hills. The steep shore and open downs make it agreeable for bathing and summer resort; and it has constant sea-going interest from the Continental mail service, and the course of vessels up and down channel lying within two miles of the shore. Objects of interest within easy reach are—the S. Foreland electric light-houses; the (florid Norman) church of St Margaret's; the Templars' Manor, Ewell; St Radigund's Abbey; the Preceptory of Knights of St John, Swingfield; rich Norman votive chapel, Barfreystone. There are two lines of railway to London—one traversing the Weald of Kent, the other following the old Roman road, *via* Canterbury and Rochester. Dover returns 2 members to Parliament, and is governed by a mayor, 6 aldermen, and 18 councillors. The area of the borough is 1262 acres. Population (1871), 28,590.

DOVER, a city of the United States, capital of Strafford county, New Hampshire, situated on the Cochecho, a tributary of the Piscataqua, at a railway junction twelve miles north-west of Portsmouth. It has eight churches, a high school, a city hall, and a public library; and the water-power furnished by the falls of the Cochecho encourages its industrial activity, the principal results of which are prints and other cotton goods to the value of upwards of £200,000 annually, woollens, leather, boots and shoes, hats, oil-cloth, sand-paper, iron and brass wares,

and carriages. The town was founded in 1623, and received its city charter in 1855. Population in 1870, 9294.

DOVER, a town of the United States, the capital of Delaware, on Jones Creek, 9 miles inland from Delaware Bay, and 48 miles south of Wilmington. It is a regular brick-built place, with broad, well-shaded streets, has a State house, a court-house, six churches, an academy, and several other public buildings, and carries on a brisk trade in preserved fruits. Population in 1870, 1906, of whom 501 were people of colour.

DOVER, GEORGE JAMES WELDORE AGAR ELLIS, BARON (1797-1833), born on the 14th January 1797, was the eldest son of the second Viscount Clifden. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and in 1818 he was returned to Parliament as member for Heytesbury. He afterwards represented Seaford (1820), Ludgershall (1826), and Oakhampton (1830). In party politics he took little interest; but he was a zealous and enlightened advocate in Parliament and elsewhere of state encouragement being given to the cause of literature and the fine arts. In 1824 he was the leading promoter of the grant of £57,000 for the purchase of Mr Angerstein's collection of pictures, which formed the foundation of the National Gallery. On the formation of Lord Grey's administration, in November 1830, he was appointed chief commissioner of woods and forests. The post was one for which his tastes well fitted him, but he was compelled by delicate health to resign it after two months' occupancy. In June 1831, during the lifetime of his father, he was raised to the House of Lords under the title of Baron Dover. His services to the cause of learning and the fine arts, as well as his own distinction as an author, led in 1832 to his election to the presidency of the Royal Society of Literature. He died on the 10th July 1833. Lord Dover's literary works were chiefly historical, and included *The True History of the Iron Mask*, extracted from *Documents in the French Archives* (1826), *Historical Inquiries respecting the Character of Clarendon* (1827), and a *Life of Frederick the Great* (1831). He also edited the *Ellis Correspondence* and *Walpole's Letters to Sir Horace Mann*. He left in manuscript a volume written for the instruction of his son, which was published posthumously under the title *Lives of the Most Eminent Sovereigns of Modern Europe*. A fourth edition of this work appeared in 1853.

DOW, LORENZO (1777-1834), an American preacher, noted for his eccentricities of dress and manner, was born at Coventry, Connecticut, U.S., October 16, 1777. He received but a limited education, and was much troubled in his youth by religious perplexities; but he ultimately joined the Methodists, and was appointed a preacher (1799). The same year, however, his official connection with that body ceased, and he came over to preach to the Catholics of Ireland. He attracted great crowds to hear and see him, and was often persecuted as well as admired. He also visited England, introduced the system of camp meetings, and thus led the way to the formation of the Primitive Methodist Society. These visits were repeated in 1805. Dow's enthusiasm sustained him through the incessant labours of more than thirty years, during which he preached in almost all parts of the United States. His later efforts were chiefly directed against the Jesuits. His *Polenical Works* were published in 1814. Among his other writings are *The Stranger in Charleston, or the Trial and Confession of Lorenzo Dow* (1822), *A Short Account of a Long Travel* (1823), and the *History of a Cosmopolite*. He died February 2, 1834.

DOWLETABAD, a city and fortress of India, in the north-western corner of the Nizam's Dominions, near one of the right-hand tributaries of the Godavery. Though

still the centre of an administrative district, the city has sunk into comparative insignificance since the rise of Aurungabad, about ten miles to the east; but the fortress remains, from its natural position, one of the most remarkable in the country. It occupies the conical top of a great granite rock, which rises abruptly from the plain to a height of at least 300 feet, and is encompassed at the foot by a ditch upwards of 30 feet wide. The only means of access to the summit is afforded by a narrow bridge, with passage for not more than two men abreast, and a long gallery, excavated in the rock, which has for the most part a very gradual upward slope, but about midway is intercepted by a steep stair, the top of which is covered by a grating destined in time of war to form the hearth of a huge fire kept burning by the garrison above. In spite, however, of its natural strength and its various artificial defences, the fortress has frequently been taken. When about the year 1203 the Mahometans invaded this part of the Deccan, Deogurh, as the city was then called, was the wealthy residence of a powerful rajah. In 1306 it was occupied by Mallek Naib, the emperor of Delhi's general; and in the early part of the same century Mahomet III., in his anxiety to make it the capital of his kingdom and worthy of its new name of Dowlatabad, or Abode of Prosperity, endeavoured, but in vain, to cause a wholesale transmigration of the inhabitants of Delhi. About the year 1595 it surrendered to Ahmed Nizam, shah of Ahmadnagar; and on the fall of his dynasty it was taken possession of by Mallek Amber, an Abyssinian slave. His successors reigned till 1634, when it was taken by the Moguls, who transferred the seat of government to Aurungabad. In the 18th century it passed into the possession of Nizam el Mulk.

**DOWN**, a maritime county of Ireland, in the province of Ulster, occupying the most easterly part of the island, is bounded N. by the county Antrim and Belfast Lough, E. and S. by the Irish Sea, and W. by the county Armagh. Its area, including Ballymacarret, a suburb of Belfast (1670 acres), covers 967 square miles, or 612,409 acres. The coast-line is very irregular, and is indented by several lagoons and bays. The largest of these is Strangford Lough, a fine sheet of water studded with 260 islets, 54 of which have names, and all of which are finely wooded or rich in pasturage. The lough runs for ten miles northwards, and the ancient castles and ruined abbeys on the islets render the scene one of singular interest and beauty. Further south Dundrum Bay forms a wider expanse of water. In the south-west Carlingford Lough separates the county from Louth. On its north-east shore lies the village of Rosstrevor, now the resort of invalids from all parts of the United Kingdom.

**Mountains.**—Between Strangford and Carlingford lagoons the county is occupied by a range of hills known in its south-western portion as the Mourne Mountains, which give rise to the four principal rivers—the Bann, the Lagan, the Annacloy, and the Newry. The highest peak in the Mourne range is named Slieve Donard. It is 2796 feet above the level of the sea, and is exceeded only by one peak, Lugduff, in the Wicklow range, and the higher reeks in Killarney.

**Springs.**—Down is celebrated for its holy wells and mineral springs. The chalybeate are more numerous than the sulphurous, but both abound. There are springs at Ardmillan, Granshaw, Dundonnell, Magheralin, Dromore, Newry, Banbridge, and Tierkelly. The Struel springs, a mile south-east of the town of Downpatrick, are celebrated for their healing properties. Fifty years ago they were regarded as possessing not only chemical wealth in rare abundance, but miraculous powers; and the decline of public credulity in the latter was coincident with the failure

of the former. To this day, however, the wells, which are four in number, are visited, and certain religious observances maintained, sometimes for a week. Circuits on the knees are made round the wells; and amongst the ignorant the reputation of the sacred waters remains unimpaired.

The scenery of the county is pleasantly diversified, the people are intelligent and comparatively well educated, the landed proprietors are resident, and there is a thriving independence which may be looked for in vain outside the province of Ulster.

**Minerals.**—There are several quarries of fine sandstone. The best is that on Scrabb Hill, near Newtownards, where a very close-grained, clear-coloured, and hard and durable stone is raised. Limestone is not very general. Near Comber, on the shores of Strangford Lough, is a very hard and sparkling kind of reddish granular limestone. But the greatest magazine of this rock is in the vicinity of Moira, where the stone lies very near the surface. Granite occurs in many places in detached masses, but the great body of it is confined to the southern and western regions, chiefly in the Mourne Mountains. Crystals of topaz and beryl are found in the granite of Slieve Donard. Indications of lead have been discovered near Castlewella, Killough, Newtownards, and Warrenpoint; and traces of copper in the Mourne Mountains near Rosstrevor.

**Soil.**—The predominating soil is a loam of little depth, in most places intermixed with considerable quantities of stones of various sizes, but differing materially in character according to the nature of the subsoil. Clay is mostly confined to the eastern coast, and to the northern parts of Castlereagh. Of sandy soil the quantity is small; it occurs chiefly near Dundrum. Moor grounds are mostly confined to the skirts of the mountains. Bogs, though frequent, are scarcely sufficient to furnish a supply of fuel to the population.

According to Owners of Land Return (1876), there were, in 1875, 3605 separate proprietors, owning a total area of 608,214 acres, valued at £776,518. The number of owners of less than 1 acre numbered 1460, or 40½ per cent, that of all Ulster being 48 per cent. The average size of the properties was 168½ acres, and the average value per acre was £1, 5s. 6½d., as against 239½ acres and 15s. 8½d. respectively for Ulster. As in the neighbouring counties of Antrim and Armagh, the value of the land in Down is considerably higher than that of the rest of the province. Eighteen proprietors owned upwards of 6000 acres each, and among them an aggregate extent equal to 48½ per cent. of the total area,—the principle holders being:—Marquis of Downshire (Hillsborough), 64,356 acres; the Kilmerley Trustees, 37,454; Earl of Annesley (Castlewella), 23,567; Marquis of Londonderry (Newtownards), 23,554; Colonel W. B. Forde (Seaford), 19,882; Earl Dufferin (Claudeboy), 18,238; Hon. R. Meade's trustees (Dromore), 13,492; R. N. Batt (Belfast), 12,010; and Lord A. E. Hill-Trevor, 10,940.

**Agriculture.**—Of the total area of the county, which is 610,740 acres (exclusive of Ballymacarret), there are 339,541 acres under tillage, 187,604 in pasture, and 12,027 under wood. Although comparisons as to yields of crops between different periods is now fallacious, inasmuch as the increased and increasing importation of wheat into Ireland has altered the system of agriculture, it may be mentioned that, while in five years the cultivation of wheat has fallen from 244,451 acres to 119,597 in Ireland, during the same period in Down the decrease was from 32,734 acres to 21,272. There are many landed proprietors who hold large tracts in their own hands. The great bulk of the labouring population is orderly and industrious. Their dwellings are better constructed and furnished than those for a similar class in other parts of Ireland. The pro-

cesses of agriculture, owing in a great degree to the example set by the resident gentry, are skilfully carried on. The land is well cultivated. The farms are in some districts small, but the effect of emigration has been to consolidate the holdings.

The breed of horses is an object of much attention, and some of the best racers in Ireland have been bred in this county. The native breed of sheep, a small hardy race, is confined to the mountains. The various other kinds of sheep have been much improved by judicious crosses from the best breeds. Hogs are reared in great numbers, chiefly for the Belfast market, where the large exportation occasions a constant demand for them, hams of very superior quality being prepared in that town.

The following figures give the acreage of the principal crops and the numbers of live stock raised in the years 1873 and 1876 respectively:—

	Wheat.	Oats.	Potatoes.	Turnips.	Flax.
1873	24,783	118,342	53,266	21,117	27,093
1876	21,272	119,857	52,273	20,973	23,612
	Horses and mules.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Pigs.	Goats.
1873	32,183	146,971	75,406	32,827	11,434
1876	31,875	143,832	68,968	51,327	11,227

Along with Tyrone, the county grows the largest extent of flax in Ireland, and the largest extent of the other cereals of any county in Ulster. In live stock Down possesses a greater number of horses than any other Irish county with the exception of Cork.

**Fisheries.**—These are not developed as they might be. The Kilkeel herring fishery realized £4203 in 1871, £6200 in 1872, £13,349 in 1873, £6000 in 1874, and £1360 in 1875. There are fishing stations at Donaghadee, Strangford, Newcastle, and Carlingford; the total number of vessels in 1875 was 678, and of men and boys 2537. In 1850 there were 1468 vessels and 4640 hands.

**Administration.**—The county is divided into 14 baronies, 10 parishes, and 1258 town-lands. It forms part of the united dioceses of Down, Connor, and Dromore; and it belongs to the military district of Belfast. The assizes are held at Downpatrick; quarter sessions at Banbridge, Downpatrick, Hillsborough, Newry, and Newtownards; and there are 26 petty sessions districts. The poor-law unions of Downpatrick, Kilkeel, and Newtownards are wholly within the county, and those of Banbridge and Newry partly in Down and partly in Armagh. The total sum expended in poor-law administration in 1875 was £21,076, and the average daily number of paupers 1280. The county prison and infirmary are in Downpatrick, but the county lunatic asylum is in Belfast. Down returns 4 members to Parliament—2 for the county at large, 1 for Downpatrick, and 1 for Newry. Portions of the boroughs of Belfast and Lisburn are in Down county, but they are regarded more properly as parts of Antrim and Armagh respectively. Previous to the Act of Union Down returned 14 members to the Irish Parliament—2 for the county at large, and 2 each for the boroughs of Bangor, Downpatrick, Hillsborough, Newry, Newtownards, and Killyleagh.

**Population.**—The general decrease of population in the province of Ulster between the census of 1851 and that of 1871 indicates a percentage of 8½, while that of this county amounts to 13½. This decrease may be ascribed in some part to the migration of the people to Belfast and the neighbouring manufacturing towns, as well as to the emigration to foreign countries. In 1851, the inhabitants of Down (exclusive of the part of Belfast) numbered 320,817; in 1861, 299,302; and in 1871, 277,294; of whom 130,457 were males and 146,837 females.

At the last census it appeared that 31½ per cent. belonged to the Roman Catholic persuasion, the numbers

being—Catholics, 88,003; Episcopalians, 60,868; Presbyterians, 116,017; and others, 12,406. There were at the same time 140,886 persons of five years and upwards who could read and write, 57,140 who could read but could not write, and 45,792 who were illiterate. There were 20 superior schools in the county, and 527 primary schools.

The following are the principal towns:—Newtownards, population 9562; Banbridge, 5600; Downpatrick, 4155; Holywood, 3573; Gilford, 2720; Bangor, 2560; Dromore, 2408; Donaghadee, 2226; Comber, 2006; Portaferry, 1938; Rathfriland, 1827; Warrenpoint, 1806; Killyleagh, 1772; Kilkeel, 1338; and Ballynahinch, 1225. Newry, partly in Down and partly in Armagh county, has a population of 14,213.

**History and Antiquities.**—From the period of the English settlement to the Irish revolt in 1333, Down formed two counties, Newtownards in the north and Down in the south. The English settlers at that time were driven into the maritime baronies of Ards, Lecale, and Mourne, of which they in part retained possession. The remainder of the district fell into the hands of Irish families, the O'Neals of Clandeboy, the MacArtaus, MacRorys, and MacGinnises, whose possessions, however, reverted to the crown on the attainder of Shane O'Neal, in the latter half of the 16th century; but having afterwards submitted to the Government, they received back their former estates. In 1602 the O'Neal estates were again forfeited, and granted to Sir Hugh Montgomery and Mr Hamilton, who planted Scottish colonies on the land. The estates of the remaining old Irish and Anglo-Norman families were mostly forfeited in the rebellion of 1641, or subsequently at the Revolution.

The county is not wanting in interesting remains. At Sliderryford, near Dundrum, there is a group of ten or twelve pillar stones in a circle, about 10 ten feet in height. A very curious cairn on the summit of Slieve Croob is 80 yards in circumference at the base and 50 at the top, where is a platform on which cairns of various heights are found standing. The village of Anadorn is famed for a cairn covering a cave which contains ashes and human bones. Cromlechs, or altars, are numerous, the most remarkable being the Giant's Ring, which stands on the summit of a hill near the borders of Antrim. This altar is formed of an unwrought stone 7 feet long by 6½ broad, resting in an inclined position on rude pillars about 3 feet high. This solitary landmark is in the centre of an inclosure about a third of a mile in circumference, formed of a rampart about 20 feet high, and broad enough atop to permit two persons to ride abreast. Near Downpatrick is a rath, or mound of earth, three-quarters of a mile in circumference, its exterior consisting of three artificial ramparts, the largest of which is 30 feet broad. In its vicinity are the ruins of Saul Abbey, said to have been founded by St Patrick, and Inch Abbey, founded by Sir John de Courcy in 1180. The number of monastic ruins is also considerable. The most ancient and celebrated is the abbey or cathedral of Downpatrick, supposed to have been founded by St Patrick soon after his arrival here in 432, and said to contain his remains, together with those of St Columba and St Bridget. It was restored in 1790, when the adjoining round tower was taken down. (E. T. L.)

**DOWNPATRICK**, a municipal and parliamentary borough and market-town of Ireland, capital of the county of Down, 18 miles S.E. of Belfast, and 74 N.N.E. of Dublin. Downpatrick lies in a valley formed by hills of some elevation, near the south-west extremity of Strangford Lough, and is divided into the English, Irish, and Scotch quarters. It consists of four main streets meeting near the centre, the principal of which are the Irish and English streets. In the former all business is carried on; the latter is well built, and contains near private residences.

The principal buildings are the cathedral church of the diocese, the parish church, Roman Catholic chapel, two Presbyterian and two Methodist meeting-houses, diocesan school, county court-house, prison, alms-houses, two branch banks, barracks, infirmary, and fever hospital. A small trade is carried on at Strangford Lough by means of vessels of 100 tons, which discharge at Quoil quay, about a mile from the town; but vessels of larger tonnage can discharge at a steamboat quay built lower down the Quoil. The imports are principally iron, coal, salt, and timber; the exports—barley, oats, cattle, pigs, and potatoes. The linen manufacture is also carried on. The County Down Railway connects the town with the other trading centres, and a line specially constructed in 1862 connects it with the port of Donaghadee. Brewing, tanning, and soap-making give considerable employment. The Down corporation races are very popular, and are regarded as a meeting for the province. The parliamentary borough, which returns one member to Parliament, had in 1871 a population of 4155, with an area of 1486 acres; the area of the town is 278 acres, population 3621.

DOXOLOGY, a hymn in praise of the Almighty. The name is often applied to the Trisagion, or "Holy, Holy, Holy," the scriptural basis of which is found in Isaiah vi. 3; to the Hallelujah of several of the Psalms and of Rev. xix.; and to the last clause of the Lord's Prayer according to Saint Matthew, which critics are generally agreed in regarding as an interpolation. It is used, however, more definitely as the designation of two hymns distinguished by liturgical writers as the Greater and Lesser Doxologies. The origin and history of these it is impossible to trace fully. The germ of both is to be found in the Gospels; the first words of the Greater Doxology, or *Gloria in Excelsis*, being taken from Luke ii. 14, and the form of the Lesser Doxology, or *Gloria Patri*, having been in all probability first suggested by Matt. xxviii. 19. The Greater Doxology, in a form approximating to that of the English prayer-book, is given in the *Apostolical Constitutions* (vii. 47). This is the earliest record of it, unless, indeed, the *Apostolical Constitutions* be taken to be of a later date than the Alexandrine Codex, where the hymn also occurs. Aleuin attributes the authorship of the Latin form—the *Gloria in Excelsis*—to St Hilary of Poitiers (died 368), but this is at best only a plausible conjecture. The quotations from the hymn in the *De Virginitate* of Athanasius, and in Chrysostom (*Hom. 63 in Matth.*), include only the opening words (those from St Luke's gospel), though the passage in Athanasius shows by an *et cetera* that only the commencement of the hymn is given. These references indicate that the hymn was used in private devotions; as it does not appear in any of the earliest liturgies, whether Eastern or Western, its introduction into the public services of the church was probably of a later date than has often been supposed. Its first introduction into the Roman liturgy is due to Pope Symmachus (498-514), who ordered it to be sung on Sundays and festival days. The Mozarabic liturgy provides for its eucharistic use on Sundays and festivals. In these and other early liturgies the Greater Doxology occurs immediately after the commencement of the service; in the English prayer-book it is introduced at the close of the communion office, but it does not occur in either the morning or evening service. The Lesser Doxology, or *Gloria Patri*, combines the character of a creed with that of a hymn. In its earliest form it ran simply—"Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost, world without end, Amen," or "Glory be to the Father, in or by the Son, and by the Holy Ghost." Until the rise of the Arian heresy these forms were probably regarded as indifferent, both being equally capable of an orthodox

interpretation. When the Arians, however, finding the second form more consistent with their views, adopted it persistently and exclusively, its use was naturally discountenanced by the Catholics, and the other form became the symbol of orthodoxy. To the influence of the Arian heresy is also obviously due the addition of the clause—"as it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be," the use of which was, according to some authorities, expressly enjoined by the Council of Nicæa. There is no sufficient evidence of this, but there exists a decree of the second Council of Vaison (529), asserting its use as already established in the East *propter hæreticorum astutiam*, and ordering its adoption throughout the churches of the West. In the Western Church the *Gloria Patri* is repeated at the close of every psalm, in the Eastern church at the close of the last psalm.

DOYEN, GABRIEL FRANÇOIS (1726-1806), an eminent French painter, was born at Paris in 1726. His passion for art prevailed over his father's wish, and he became in his twelfth year a pupil of Vanloo. Making rapid progress, he obtained at twenty the grand prize, and in 1748 set out for Rome. He studied the works of Annibale Caracci, Cortona, Giulio Romano, and Michelangelo, then visited Naples, Venice, Bologna, and other Italian cities, and in 1755 returned to Paris. At first unappreciated and disparaged, he resolved by one grand effort to conquer a reputation, and in 1758 he exhibited his *Death of Virginia*. It was completely successful, and procured him admission to the Academy. Among his greatest works are reckoned,—the *Miracle des Ardents*, painted for the church of St Geneviève at St Roch (1773); the *Triumph of Thetis*, for the chapel of the Invalides; and the *Death of St Louis*, for the chapel of the Military School. In 1776 he was appointed professor at the Academy of Painting. Soon after the beginning of the Revolution he accepted the invitation of Catherine II. and settled at St Petersburg, where he was loaded with honours and rewards. He died there June 5, 1806.

DRACO, a celebrated Athenian legislator who flourished in the 7th century B.C. By a strange irony of fate his name has passed into a proverb for an inexorable lawgiver, whose laws were written with blood and not with ink. Modern Greek historians, such as Thirlwall, Grote, and Curtius, have clearly shown that such a character is an utter perversion of fact. Of Draco's famous code not a single line remains, and all we know of it is derived from a few scattered notices occurring mostly in late Greek authors. Of these the most important is a passage in Plutarch's life of Solon. After stating that Solon abolished the whole of Draco's legislation, except in cases of murder, on account of its harshness and severity, Plutarch adds by way of commentary—"For for nearly all crimes there was the same penalty of death. The man who was convicted of idleness, or who stole a cabbage or an apple, was liable to death no less than the robber of temples or the murderer." To the same effect is a traditional saying of Draco by which he justified the rigour of his laws. The least offence, he said, seemed to him deserving of death, and he could devise no greater for the worst crime. It is obvious that the statement of Plutarch is not meant to be accepted as a literal statement of fact, and it is probable that to the most bloodthirsty of Draco's laws parallels might be quoted from English statutes against vagrancy and theft. All that Draco did was to put in writing the customary laws of his time and nation. It was natural that these laws, the growth of a rude and primitive age, should strike writers of the Augustan age as indiscriminate and inhuman. That he made no change in the constitution of Athens we have the express testimony of Aristotle. The judicial changes which he effected, so far from aggravating, all

tended to mitigate the severity of early Athenian law. Before his time all cases of homicide were tried by the Areopagus, and we are justified in inferring that death was the universal penalty. To Draco is generally attributed the establishment of the *êpera*, a body of fifty-one elders, who sat in four different courts,—one for cases of accidental homicide, a second for justifiable homicide, a third for cases where another homicide had been committed abroad by a prisoner who had been banished by one of the above-named courts, and a fourth for cases of deodand. Such an institution is of itself enough to explode the traditional conception of Draco, and we may now proceed to discuss the true character of his legislation. At Athens, as at Rome, the kings were the depositaries and administrators of law. With the extinction of the regal power this prerogative passed into the hands of the aristocracy as represented by the archons. It was in the nature of things that such a monopoly should be abused. The remedy for this abuse which the commons sought was a published code of laws. It was attained at Rome by the law of the Twelve Tables, and at Athens by the code of Draco, 621 B.C. In both cases the promulgated law was merely an enunciation of existing customs. Such was the work of Draco. Of his life we know absolutely nothing with the exception of a most improbable story related by Suidas. In Suidas's *Lexicon*, under the word "Draco," we are told that he composed his code in his old age, and was smothered to death in the theatre at Ægina with the caps, chitons, and cloaks which were thrown at him by an enthusiastic audience. The only value of the story is that it may show the feelings with which he was regarded by the commons of his own day.

DRAGON (*δράκων*, sharp-sighted), the name given by the ancients to a fabulous monster represented by them as a huge winged lizard or serpent. They regarded it as the enemy of mankind, and its overthrow is made to figure among the greatest exploits of the gods and heroes of heathen mythology. A dragon watched the garden of the Hesperides, and its destruction formed one of the seven labours of Hercules. Its existence does not seem to have been called in question by the older naturalists, figures of the dragon appearing in the works of Gesner and Aldrovandi, and even specimens of the monster—evidently formed artificially of portions of various animals—having been exhibited. The only creatures ever known to have existed, at all comparable to this imaginary monster, are the Pterodactyls, remains of which are found in the Liassic and Oolitic formations. These were huge reptiles, provided with true wings somewhat resembling those of bats. The name "dragon" is now applied to a highly interesting, but very harmless, group of small flying lizards forming the genus *Draco*, belonging to the *Agamidae*, a family of Saurian Reptiles. They inhabit India and the islands of the Malay Archipelago, and 18 species of them are known. They are small creatures, measuring about 10 inches long, including the tail, which in some cases is more than half of the entire length. The head is small, and the throat is provided with three pouches which are spread out when they lie on the trunks of trees. They are, however, chiefly remarkable for the wing-like cutaneous processes with which their sides are provided, and which are extended and supported by greatly elongated ribs. These form a sort of parachute by which the animals are enabled to glide from branch to branch of the trees on which they reside, but, being altogether independent of the fore limbs, they cannot be regarded as true wings, nor do they enable the lizard to fly, but merely to make extensive leaps. When not in use they are folded by the side after the manner of a fan, and the dragon can then walk or run with considerable agility. They also use their wing-like expansions in clasping the branches

of trees, where they are fond of lying basking in the sun, and feeding on whatever insect may come in their way. When threatened with danger they are said to feign death.

DRAGON-FLY (German, *Wasserjungfer*; Swedish, *Trollslända*; Danish, *Guldsmed*; Dutch, *Scherpstekende-vlieg*; French, *Demoiselle*), the popular English name applied to the members of a remarkable group of insects which formed the genus *Libellula* of Linnæus and the ancient authors. In some parts of the United States they appear to be known as "Devil's Darning Needles," and in many parts of England are termed "Horse-stingers." It is almost needless to say that (excepting to other insects upon which they prey) they are perfectly innocuous, though some of the larger species can inflict a momentarily painful bite with their powerful jaws. Their systematic position is at present contested and somewhat uncertain. By most of the older systematists they were placed as forming part of the heterogeneous order *Neuroptera*. Fabricius, however, elevated them to the rank of a distinct order, which he termed *Odonata*; and whatever may be the difference of opinion amongst authors at the present day, that term is almost universally employed for the group. Erichson transferred all the groups of so-called *Neuroptera* with incomplete metamorphoses, hence including the dragon-flies, as a division of *Orthoptera*, which he termed *Pseulo-Neuroptera*. Gerstæcker more recently also retains them in the *Orthoptera*, terming those groups in which the earlier states are sub-aquatic *Orthoptera amphibiotica*. It is not necessary to enter into an examination here of the merits or demerits of those various systems, and it will suffice to say that all are agreed in maintaining the insects as forming a group marked by characters at once extraordinary and isolated in their nature.

The group *Odonata* (using the term as a matter of convenience) is divided into three families, and each of these again into two sub-families. The families are the *Agrionidae*, *Æschnidae*, and *Libellulidae*,—the first including the sub-families *Calopterygina* and *Agrionina*, the second *Gomphina* and *Æchnina*, and the third *Cordulina* and *Libellulina*.

The structure of a dragon-fly being so very remarkable, it is necessary to enter somewhat extensively into details. The head is comparatively small, and excavated posteriorly, connected very slightly with the prothorax, on which it turns almost as on a pivot. The eyes are, as a rule, enormous, often contiguous, and occupying nearly the whole of the upper surface of the head, but sometimes (*Agrionidae* and *Gomphina*) widely distant; occupied by innumerable facets, which are often larger on the upper portion. In front of them is a portion termed the vertex, which sometimes (*Libellulidae*) forms a swollen vesicle, before which are placed the three very small ocelli, and on either side of which are inserted the antennæ, which are smaller in proportion than in almost any other insects, consisting only of two short swollen basal joints and a 5 or 6-jointed bristle-like thread. The front of the head is vertical, and consists of a large, often dilated upper portion, which is commonly termed the *nasus*, followed by a transverse portion termed the *rhinarium*, and this again by the large labrum, which conceals the jaws and inner mouth parts. The lower lip, or labium, is attached to a very small chin piece (or mentum), and is generally very large, often (*Agrionidae*) divided almost to its base into two portions, or more frequently entire or nearly so; on each side of it are two usually enormous hypertrophied pieces, which form the "palpi," and which are often furnished at the tips with an articulated spine (or terminal joint), the whole structure serving to retain the prey. Considerable diversity of opinion exists