

have absolute monarchy restored. The proceedings of the congress at Laibach were a farce. A letter was concocted by Metternich for King Ferdinand to send to his subjects, informing them that the powers would not permit the constitution to exist, and that, in default of their submission, the allied courts would employ force. The British Government, while protesting against the joint action of the three powers as an assumption of international sovereignty, was perfectly willing that Austria, as a state endangered by the Neapolitan revolution, should act on its own account. Metternich, however, continued to treat the Neapolitan question as the affair of Europe, and maintained his concert with Russia and Prussia. Early in 1821 an Austrian force, acting in the name of the allies, entered central Italy. The armies opposed to it collapsed, and the Austrians entered Naples on March 24. But in the meantime a revolution broke out in Piedmont, which threatened to cut off the Austrians from their supports, and to raise all Italy against them. For a moment the bold action of Metternich seemed to have resulted in immense danger both to his own conservative policy and to the peace of Europe; for it was believed that the Piedmontese revolution would be answered, not only by a general Italian movement, but by a rising against the Bourbons in France. The cloud, however, passed away. Order was quickly restored in Piedmont; Lombardy was safely held by Austrian garrisons; and the conclusion of the Italian difficulties, in which Metternich had played a very difficult part with great resolution and dexterity, was his complete and brilliant personal triumph. No statesman in Europe at this moment held a position that could compare with his own.

At the congress of Verona, held in 1822, the affairs of Spain were considered by the powers. In the end, the Spanish constitution was overthrown by a French invading army; but, though the arm employed was that of France, the principle of absolutism which animated the crusade was that which Metternich had made his own. A severe check, however, now met him in another quarter. Greece had risen against Turkish rule in 1821. The movement was essentially a national and a religious one, but Metternich treated it as a Jacobinical revolt against lawful authority, — confusing, or affecting to confuse, the struggle for national independence with the shallow and abortive efforts of political liberalism in Italy and Spain. Metternich's attitude towards the Greeks was for some time one of unqualified hostility. If, under the pressure of the Tilsit alliance, he had once been willing that Austria should join Russia in dismembering Turkey, he had now reverted to the principle of maintaining Turkey at all costs against a Russian advance southwards; and he attributed the Greek movement to the efforts of Russian agitators unauthorized by the czar. His desire was that the sultan should deprive Russia of all possible cause for complaint as regarded its own separate interests, and so gain freedom to deal summarily with the Greeks. Metternich's hopes failed, partly through the obstinacy of the Turks, partly through the wavering conduct of Alexander, and partly through the death of Castlereagh and the accession of Canning to power. It was in great part owing to Canning's moral support that Greece ultimately became an independent state; and the extraordinary violence of Metternich's language whenever he mentions this English statesman marks only too well the opposite character of his aims. No politician has left a more damning record against himself than Metternich in his bigoted abuse of Canning. The Greek question, however, was only the first on which the judgment of events was now beginning to declare itself against Metternich and all his principles. The French revolution of 1830 shattered the moral fabric which he

had so proudly inaugurated, and in great part himself raised, in 1815. The accord that grew up between England and France now made any revival of the kind of presidency that he had once held in Europe impossible. He was indeed bold and rapid in throwing troops into the papal territory when revolutionary movements broke out there in 1831 and 1832, though war with France seemed likely to result from this step. He was as unsparing as he had been in 1819 in suppressing the agitation which after 1830 spread from France to Germany; and the union of the three eastern courts was once more exhibited in the meeting of the monarchs which took place at Münchengrätz in 1833, and in a declaration delivered at Paris, insisting on their right of intervention against revolution in other countries. It was, however, the new czar of Russia, Nicholas, who was now the real head of European conservatism; and the stubborn character, the narrow, unimaginative mind, of this prince made it impossible for Metternich to shape his purposes by that delicate touch which had been so effective with his predecessor. But in Austria itself Metternich continued without a rival. In 1835 the emperor Francis, with whom he had worked for nearly thirty years, died. Metternich, himself falling into the mental habits of old age, remained at the head of the state till 1848. The revolution of that year ended his political career. He resigned office with the dignity of demeanour which had never failed him; his life was scarcely safe in Vienna, and the old man came for a while to England, which he had not visited since 1794. Living on till June 1859, he saw every great figure of his earlier life, and many that had appeared on the horizon since his own prime, pass away; and a few more months of life would have enabled him to see the end of that political order which it had been his life-work to uphold; for the army of Napoleon III. was crossing the Sardinian frontier at the moment when he died, and before a second summer had gone Victor Emmanuel had been proclaimed king of Italy.

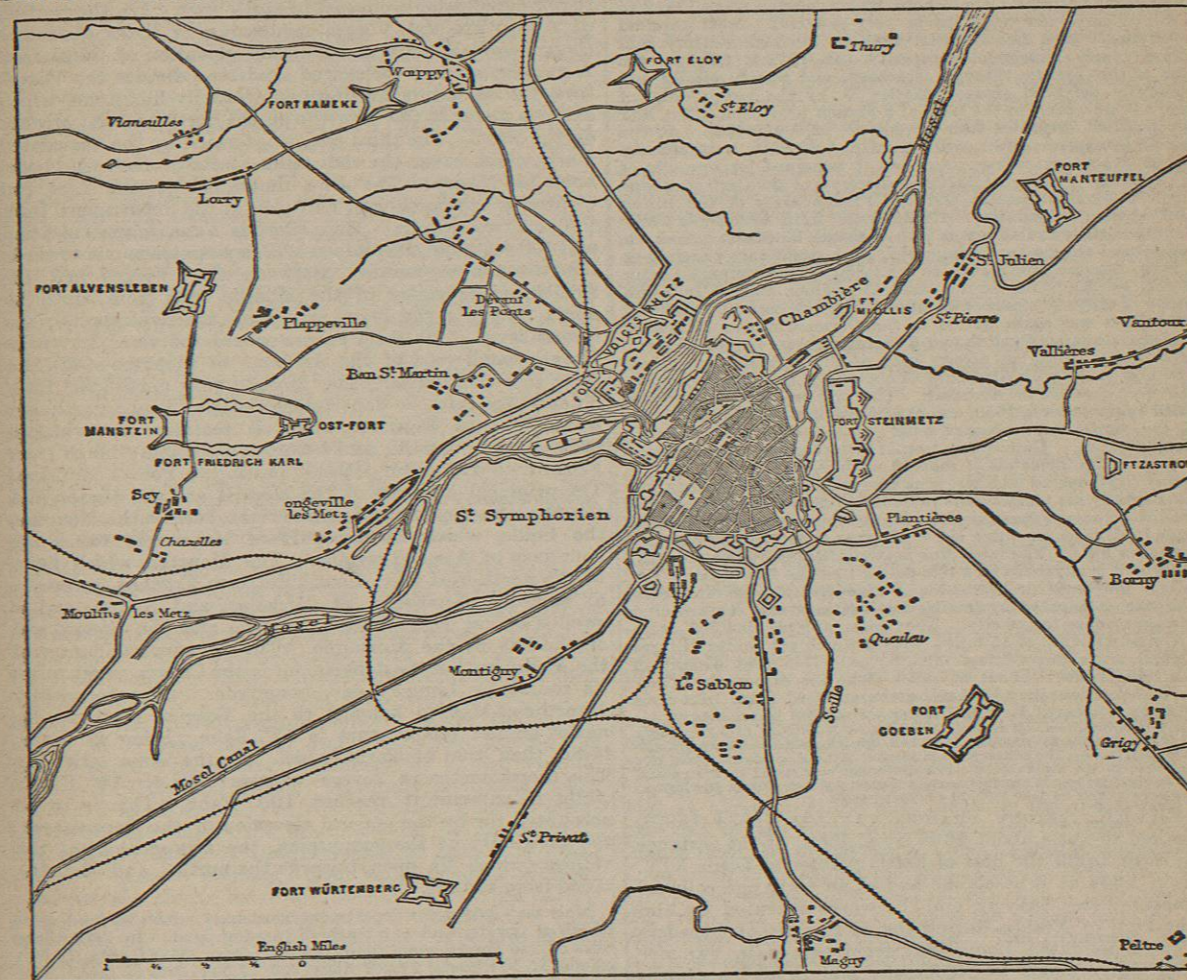
Metternich was a diplomatist rather than a statesman. His influence was that of an expert manager of individuals, not of a man of great ideas. All his greatest work was done before fifty; and at an age when most statesmen are in the maturity of their powers he had become tedious and pedantic. His private character was very lovable. He was an affectionate, if not a faithful husband, a delightful friend, and a most tender father. The excessive egotism which runs through his writings gives perhaps an impression of weakness which did not really belong to his nature. Drawn by a firmer pen, the scene in which he describes himself labouring in the German conferences of 1820, while his favourite daughter was dying in an adjoining room, would have been one of the most affecting things in political biography. The man who could so have worked and felt together must have possessed no ordinary strength of character, no common force of self-control.

The collection of Metternich's writings published by his family under the title of *Denkwürdigkeiten*, along with French and English editions, contains letters and despatches of great value. The autobiography is not always trustworthy, and must be read with caution. Gentz's correspondence is of first-rate importance for the years 1813-30. Original papers are also contained in various German works upon particular events or movements, as in Oncken for the negotiations of 1813; Welcker, Aegidi, Nauwerck for German affairs in 1819 and following years; Prokesch von Osten for Eastern affairs. (C. A. F.)

METZ, the capital of German Lorraine, and one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, is situated at the confluence of the Moselle and the Seille, 80 miles to the north-west of Strasburg, and 190 miles to the east of Paris. It is the seat of a military governor, the judicial and administrative authorities of Lorraine, a Roman Catholic bishop

Protestant and Jewish consistories, and a chamber of commerce. The general appearance of the town is quaint and irregular, but there are also many handsome modern streets. The Moselle flows through it in several arms, crossed by fourteen or fifteen bridges. In the south-west corner of the town is the esplanade, an extensive open space commanding a fine view of the fertile "Pays Messin" around Metz. The most interesting of the ten city gates is the Porte d'Allemagne or Deutsches Thor, a castellated structure erected in 1445, and still bearing traces of the siege of Charles V. Metz contains seven Roman Catholic churches,

two Protestant churches, and a synagogue. The cathedral, with huge pointed windows, slender columns, and numerous flying buttresses, was begun in the 13th century, and finished in 1546, and belongs to the decadence of the Gothic style. The Gothic churches of St Vincent and St Eucharius, and the handsome garrison-church, completed in 1881, also deserve mention. Among secular buildings the most important are the large covered market, the town-hall, the palace of justice, the theatre, the governor's house, and the various buildings for military purposes. The public library contains 35,000 volumes, including an



Metz and Neighbourhood.

1. Palace of Justice.
2. Prefecture.
3. Cathedral.
4. Town-Hall and Governor's House.

extensive collection of works relating to the history of Lorraine. In the same building is the museum, which contains a picture gallery, a numismatic cabinet, and a collection of specimens of natural history. Metz also possesses several learned societies and charitable institutions, a gymnasium, three seminaries, and a military academy. The cemetery of Chambière contains the graves of 8400 French soldiers who died here in 1870.

The commerce and industry of Metz have not yet entirely recovered from the blow inflicted by the withdrawal of French capital in 1871. The principal articles of manufacture are leather, coarse cloth and canvas, gun-

powder, arms, needles, billiard tables, hats, and artificial flowers. There are several large iron-works in the neighbourhood. The trade of Metz is chiefly carried on in leather, timber, wine, brandy, liqueurs, beer, preserved fruits, and hardwares. A large annual fair is held here. The civil population of Metz, which in 1869 amounted to 48,066, sank in 1872 to 33,134. Since then it has steadily increased, and in 1881 was 43,275, about half of whom were Germans. The garrison of Metz consists of 10,000 men, or including the surrounding forts nearly 16,000. The total of 53,813 includes 17,000 Protestants and 1600 Jews.

**History.**—Metz, the Gallic Divodurum, was the chief town of the Mediomatrici, and was also called by the Romans Mediomatrix, a name from which the present form has been derived by contraction. Cæsar describes it as one of the oldest and most important towns in Gaul. The Romans, recognizing its strategical importance, fortified it and supplied it with water by an imposing aqueduct, the remains of which still exist. Under the Roman emperors Metz was connected by military roads with Toul, Langres, Lyons, Strasburg, Verdun, Rheims, and Treves. Christianity was introduced in the 3d century of our era. In the middle of the 5th century the town was plundered by the Huns under Attila; subsequently it came into the possession of the Franks; and in 512 it was made the capital of Austrasia. On the partition of the Carolingian realms in 848 Metz fell to the share of the western kingdom as the capital of Lorraine. Its bishops, whose creation reaches back to the 4th century, now began to be very powerful. Metz acquired the privileges of a free imperial town in the 12th century, and attained great commercial prosperity. In 1552 it fell into the hands of the French through treachery, and was heroically and successfully defended against Charles V. by the young duke of Guise. It now sank to the level of a French provincial town, and its population dwindled from 60,000 to 22,000 (1698). At the peace of Westphalia Metz, with Toul and Verdun, was formally ceded to France, in whose possession it remained for upwards of two centuries. In August 1870 the successes of the German troops compelled Marshal Bazaine and the French army of the Rhine to seek shelter behind the fortifications of Metz, which was forthwith subjected by the Germans to a rigorous blockade. After an investment of ten weeks, during which not a single shot was fired at the town, Bazaine capitulated, surrendering to the victors an army of nearly 180,000 men, several hundred cannon, and an immense quantity of military stores of all kinds. By the peace of Frankfurt in 1871 Metz was again united to the German empire. Marshal Fabert and Generals Custine and Kellermann were natives of Metz. As a fortress Metz has always been of the highest importance, and it now ranks with Strasburg as one of the two great bulwarks of the west frontier of Germany. The original town-walls were replaced by ramparts in 1550, and the citadel was built in 1566. In 1674 the works were reconstructed by the celebrated military engineer Vauban. Under Napoleon III. the fortress was strengthened to meet the demands of modern warfare, and since 1871 the Germans have spared neither time nor money in completing and supplementing his plans. The present fortifications of Metz consist of two lines—an inner circle of bastions and ramparts enclosing the city itself, and an outer circle of large detached forts on the surrounding hills. The inner line is strengthened by two citadels, one of which is advanced as a tête-de-pont on the left bank of the Moselle. The outer circle consists of nine or ten large forts, connected with each other by smaller fortifications and commanding all the approaches to the city. They form a large fortified camp with a circumference of 15 miles, within which are twelve villages and numerous country-houses and farms. The most distant of the outlying forts is about 3½ miles from the cathedral. Their names and positions may be seen on the annexed plan. Previous to 1870 the fortress of Metz had never succumbed to an enemy.

**Sources of Information.**—Westphal, *Geschichte der Stadt Metz*, 1876-78; Georg Lang, *Metz und seine Umgebungen*, 1883, and *Statistisch-topographisches Handbuch für Lothringen*. The official German account of the blockade of Metz in 1870 will be found in the history of the Franco-German war issued by the general staff at Berlin, 1872 sq. A succinct account is given by Georg Lang, *Die Kriegsgeschichte von Metz im Jahr 1870*, 2d ed., Metz, 1880.

**MEULEN, ANTONY FRANCIS VAN DER** (1634-1690), was called to Paris about 1666 by Colbert, at the instance of Le Brun, to fill the post of battle painter to Louis XIV. Born in 1634 at Brussels, he had at an early age eclipsed his master Peter Snayers, and the works executed by him for the king of France during the campaigns of Flanders (1667) so delighted Louis that from that date Van der Meulen was ordered to accompany him in all his expeditions. In 1673 he was received into the French Academy, and attained the grade of councillor in 1681. Lodged in the Gobelins, richly pensioned, and loaded with honours, he died at Paris in 1690. Detached works from his hand are to be seen in various collections, but he is best represented by the series of twenty-three paintings, mostly executed for Louis XIV., now in the Louvre. They show that he always retained his Flemish predilections in point of colour, although in other respects his style was modified by that of the French school.

See *Mém. inédit. Acad. de Peinture*, 1854; Descamps, *Vies des Peintres Flamands*.

**MEURTHE-ET-MOSELLE**, a department in the north-east of France, formed in 1871 out of those parts of the

old departments of Meurthe and Moselle which continued French, and deriving its name from the two principal rivers which water it. Prior to 1790 it belonged to ancient Lorraine, or to one or other of the bishoprics of Toul, Metz, and Verdun. It lies between 5° 25' and 7° 5' E. long. and 48° 25' and 49° 5' N. lat., and is bounded on the E. by Alsace-Lorraine, on the N. by Belgium and the grand-duchy of Luxemburg, on the W. by the department of Meuse, and on the S. by that of Vosges. The superficial area is 2020 square miles. Geologically Meurthe-et-Moselle has five well-marked regions following each other in regular succession from east to north-west. On the frontier of Alsace are the Vosges mountains, of Trias sandstone (*grès Vosgiens*), with a maximum elevation of 3000 feet. A narrow band of variegated sandstone divides the Vosges from the second region, formed of shelly limestone, which extends as far as the Meurthe on the north and the Moselle on the west. The third region is formed by the variegated marls which cover the rich saline strata of the neighbourhood of Nancy. The Jura limestones of the Liás and Oolite, to the north-west and west of the department, form the last two regions. Here there is a maximum elevation of 1400 feet, and the plateau of Briey stretches out towards that of the Ardennes. Between the Vosges and the Ardennes the valley of the Moselle runs from south to north, forming the main artery of the department; the lowest level (570 feet) occurs where the river leaves it. Only a small part of the drainage of Meurthe-et-Moselle flows into the Meuse. The Moselle runs north-west from its entrance into the department as far as Toul; north-east from Toul to Frouard, where it receives its principal affluent, the Meurthe, and becomes navigable; north from Frouard to Pagny-sur-Moselle, passing to Pont à Mousson. The principal affluents of the Moselle are the Madon and the Orne on the left, and on the right, besides the Meurthe, the Seille, which in one part of its course forms the boundary of Alsace-Lorraine. The Meurthe, which flows to the north-west from Raon l'Étape to Frouard, passes on to Baccarat, Lunéville, St Nicholas, and Nancy, and is swelled on the right by the Vezouse and the Sanon, and on the left by the Mortagne. The principal tributary of the Meuse within the department is the Chiers, which takes its course by Longwy and Longuyon. Climatologically Meurthe-et-Moselle belongs to the Vosgian region. Its mean annual temperature is 52° Fahr., being 2° Fahr. lower than that of Paris (which has the same latitude). The thermometer in severe winters falls to 13° Fahr., while in summer it reaches 100° Fahr. This is to be accounted for by the general elevation of the department, the proximity of the mountains, the arrangement of the valleys (which lie open towards the north), and the distance from the sea.

More than half of the department consists of culturable land, one-fourth of forests, and one-tenth of meadow land. In 1878 there were 54,346 horses, more than 100,000 sheep, 85,000 pigs, 74,000 cattle, 15,000 goats, 21,000 dogs, and 17,000 hives of bees. The crops for the same year amounted to 454,192 quarters of wheat, 87,500 quarters of barley, 35,078 quarters of rye, 570,884 quarters of oats, 9,079,125 bushels of potatoes, and 76,868 tons of beet-root. Hops, tobacco, colza, hemp, and flax also occupy a considerable area. The annual yield of the vineyards (56 square miles in extent) exceeds £900,000; the wines of Toul are the best. The most common fruit trees are the pear, the apple, the walnut, the cherry, and the plum. Of forest trees the oak and the wych-elm are most frequent in the west of the department, the beech and the fir in the Vosges. The French school of forestry has its seat at Nancy. The metallurgic industry is highly developed, and has made very rapid progress within the last few years. Even in 1872 there was a consumption of 350,000 tons of coal, four-fifths of which came from Saarbruck, and the remaining fifth from Belgium. In 1877 the iron ore obtained amounted to 1,000,000 tons, of which two-thirds came from the beds near Nancy, the remainder from the neighbourhood of Longwy. In 1880 the department produced a third of the pig-iron made in France (more than 500,000 tons).

In 1877 the yield was 43,000 tons. Besides blast-furnaces, forges, and rolling-mills, there are manufactories of files and boring tools, agricultural implements, and furniture. In the production of salt the department holds the first rank in France; the salt-bearing tracts cover more than 150 square miles, the beds having a mean thickness of 65 feet. The principal salt-working centres (St Nicolas, Varangeville, and Rosières-aux-Salines) lie between Nancy and Lunéville; the annual value of rock-salt and refined salt produced exceeds £500,000; subsidiary to this production is an important manufacture of soda salts. The other chemical products are prussiate of potash, bone black, wax-candles, soap, and matches. Stone quarrying and the manufacture of plaster and lime are also important branches of industry. The flint-glass manufactory of Baccarat, which employs nearly 1500 workmen, is well known; that of plate-glass at Cirey (with 1000 workmen) produces plates of great size. The faience manufactories of Lunéville, Toul, and Longwy are important. Mention may also be made of the manufacture of window-glass, watch-glasses, and drinking-glasses. The tobacco manufacture at Nancy employs 1000 workmen; tanning, glove-making, hat-making in felt and straw, wool-spinning, and the manufacture of army clothing are also carried on. Nancy is renowned for its embroidery, which is, however, diminishing in importance. It also possesses factories for cotton spinning and cotton stuffs, and for hosiery. The starch manufactories and the breweries, especially that of Tantonville, the largest in France, are highly productive. Nancy also carries on distilleries, grain-mills, paper-mills, manufactories of pasteboard objects, and a large printing establishment. The commerce of the department is effectively served by 300 miles of railway (the principal line being that from Paris to Strasburg through Nancy), by a number of good roads, and by several navigable rivers and canals. The main waterway is formed by the canal between the Marne and the Rhine, which runs by Toul and Nancy, and traverses the department from west to east. This canal communicates with the Moselle, which is navigable from Frouard downwards, and with the new eastern canal, which reascends the Moselle as far as Épinal, and which is intended to unite the Meuse and the Moselle with the Saône and the Rhone. The population of Meurthe-et-Moselle in 1881 was 419,317 inhabitants. It constitutes the diocese of Nancy, has its court of appeal at Nancy, and forms a part of the district of the 6th army corps (Châlons-sur-Marne). There are 4 arrondissements (Nancy, Briey, Lunéville, and Toul), 29 cantons, and 597 communes. The capital is Nancy, and the other principal towns are Pont à Mousson, formerly the seat of a university; Longwy (5064), a fortified place; and Baccarat (6013), celebrated for its glass-works.

**MEUSE, MAESE, or MAAS**, a river of France, Belgium, and Holland, discharging into the North Sea or German Ocean, has a course (variously measured) of some 500 or 550 miles, about 300 miles lying within France. Rising in the department of Haute-Marne (1342 feet), at a point where the plateau of Langres borders on the Monts Faucilles, it follows a winding course, first from south to north, then to north-west, and afterwards to north, across the departments of Vosges, Meuse, and Ardennes, passing by Neufchâteau, Vaucouleurs, Commercy, St Mihiel, Verdun, Sedan, Mézières, and Givet. Naturally navigable below Verdun, it has been made so from Troussey, where it meets the canal which unites the Marne to the Rhine, and from this point to Liège it admits vessels of from 6 to 7 feet draught. After traversing a wide valley covered by green meadows, the Meuse, below Mézières, flows through narrow gorges confined between rocky walls 200 or 300 feet high, formed by the plateau of the Ardennes. The hills of the Argonne, by which it is hemmed in on its upper course, prevent its receiving any important affluent before the Chiers and the Semoy, which both fall into it on the right in the Ardennes. At the point where it leaves France its ordinary volume is about 1000 cubic feet. In Belgium it runs picturesquely between the districts of Famenne and Condroz on the right, and those of Les Fagnes and Hesbaye on the left. Above Dinant it receives the Lesse, whose valley is celebrated for its wonderful grottoes, and at the foot of the citadel of Namur it is joined on the left by its principal affluent, the Sambre, whose north-easterly direction it takes. It then takes its course through the busy valley in which Huy, Seraing, and Liège are situated, receiving the Ourthe on its right. Resuming a northerly direction, then taking one to the north-west, and finally one to the

west, the Meuse passes in front of the Dutch citadel of Maestricht to Roermonde, so called from its confluence there with the Roer, and to Venlo, where the canal between the Meuse and the Scheldt begins. Flowing thence through an absolutely unbroken plain, it finally joins the Rhine, to which it gives its own name, although the volume of its waters is twenty times less than that of the German river. It is at Gorcum that the Waal, the first separate arm of the Rhine, brings to the Meuse two-thirds of the waters of that river. The Meuse soon after divides into two branches. While the Merwede flows due west, the southern arm falls into the Biesbosch, an estuary of the sea, formed four hundred and fifty years ago by an irruption of the sea over a country then cultivated and thickly peopled, and now the subject of attempts at reclamation. On reaching Dordrecht, where the river navigation and sea navigation meet, and where the rafts which come down from the Black Forest are broken up, the Meuse again divides into two arms. The Old Meuse flows due west, while the northern arm joins the Lek, a second branch of the Rhine, and continues its course to Rotterdam. This is the most important branch of the estuary of the Meuse, and efforts are being made to regulate and deepen its channel by constructing one of those grand canals in which the Dutch are so skilful. Schiedam and Vlardingem, both on the right, are the last places of importance on the banks of the river.

**MEUSE**, a department in the north-east of France, formed out of a part of Lorraine and portions of the Three Bishoprics, the Clermontais, and Champagne, derives its name from the river by which it is traversed from south to north. It lies between 4° 52' and 5° 50' E. long. and between 48° 25' and 49° 38' N. lat., and is bounded on the N. by Belgium and the department of Ardennes, on the E. by that of Meurthe-et-Moselle, on the S. by those of Vosges and Haute-Marne, and on the W. by those of Marne and Ardennes. Of its superficial area (2405 square miles), about one-half belongs to the basin of the Meuse, which is enclosed to the east and west by the eastern and western Argennes. On the north-east it is watered by the Orne, a tributary of the Moselle, and the Chiers, which runs by Montmédy, and joins the Meuse a little beyond the northern limit of the department. The other half sends its waters to the Seine through the Aire, a tributary of the Aisne, both of which take their rise here, and by the Ornain, an affluent of the Saux, these two last being tributary to the Marne. The Meuse receives no important river in its course through this department. The highest elevation (1388 feet) occurs to the south-west, on the line of the ridge which separates the basin of the Meuse from that of the Seine. The heights gradually sink from south to north, but seldom fall below 1000 feet. The hills of the western Argonne similarly sink rapidly down to the valley of the Saux, where the lowest level of the department (377 feet) is reached. The climate of Meuse is transitional between the region of the Seine and that of the Vosges; its winters are less severe than those of the latter, but it is not so temperate as the former. The mean annual temperature is 52° Fahr. As at Paris, the maximum cold is 9° Fahr.; the greatest heat rarely exceeds 95° Fahr.

More than half the surface of the department consists of culturable lands, one-fourth of forest, one-tenth of meadow land. The proportion of horses is larger than in any other French department, except La Manche. There are 53,800 horses, 90,000 cattle, 145,000 sheep, 125,000 pigs, and nearly 30,000 beehives. Cereals, potatoes, and beet-root are the chief crops (in 1877 465,966 quarters of wheat, 104,660 quarters of barley, 535,355 quarters of oats, 7,677,374 bushels of potatoes, besides pulse, hemp, and colza). The vineyards produced more than 6,600,000 gallons of wine of good quality. The forests, which are principally of oak, are rich in game, as are the rivers in fish. The mineral wealth of the depart-

ment includes iron ore, good freestone, and fossil phosphates of lime. There are blast-furnaces, iron, copper, and bell foundries, wire-works, and manufactories of files, hardware, and edge tools. The cotton-spinning factories employ 15,000 spindles and 32,000 frames; the woollen manufacture employs 5000 spindles, and some hundreds of persons are employed in the spinning and weaving of hemp, flax, and jute. The glass-works (particularly the manufactory of painted window-glass, transferred after the war of 1870 from Metz to Bar-le-Duc), paper-mills, saw-mills, and flour-mills, as well as the manufactories of lime, tiles, and fire-bricks, are worthy of mention. Hosiery and embroidery also give occupation to a great number of workshops, and the department is celebrated for its confectionery. Meuse contains more than 300 miles of railway,—the principal lines being that from Paris to Strasburg through Bar-le-Duc and Com-

mercy, that from Paris to Metz through Verdun, and the branch line to the Meuse. The chief waterways are the canal connecting the Marne with the Rhine, and the canal of the Meuse; the two together have a length of 146 miles. The population of the department in 1881 was 289,861,—a small number in proportion to its extent, and with a tendency to decrease. Ecclesiastically it forms the diocese of Verdun; it has its court of appeal at Nancy, and constitutes part of the district of the army corps of Châlons-sur-Marne. There are 4 arrondissements,—Bar-le-Duc, Commercy, Montmédy, and Verdun,—28 cantons, and 586 communes. Bar-le-Duc (population in 1881, 17,485) is the capital; Commercy has 5260 inhabitants and Montmédy 3000; St Mihiel (5915), on the Meuse, has good churches and some remarkable rocks, and is the seat of the departmental assize court.

## M E X I C O

### I. ANCIENT MEXICO.

THE name Mexico is connected with the name of the group of American tribes calling themselves *Mexica* (sing. *Mexicalt*), or *Azteca*. The word is related to or derived from the name of the Mexican national war-god Mexitl, better known as Huitzilopochtli. The Aztecs from the 12th century appear to have migrated from place to place over the mountain-walled plateau of *Anahuac*, the country "by the water," so called from its salt lagoons, and which is now known as the valley of Mexico. About 1325 they founded on the lake of Tezcuco the permanent settlement of Mexico Tenochtitlan, which is still represented by the capital city Mexico. The name Mexico was given by the Spanish conquerors to the group of countries over which the Aztec power more or less prevailed at the time of the European invasion. Clavigero (*Storia Antica del Messico*, vol. i.) gives a map of the so-called "Mexican empire," which may be roughly described as reaching from the present Zacatecas to beyond Guatemala; it is noticeable that both these names are of Mexican origin, derived respectively from words for "straw" and "wood." Eventually Mexico and New Mexico came to designate the still vaster region of Spanish North America, which (till cut down by changes which have limited the modern republic of Mexico) reached as far as the Isthmus of Panama on the south and took in California and Texas on the north. Mexico in this wide sense is of high interest to the anthropologist, from the several native American civilizations which appear within its limits, and which conveniently if loosely group themselves round two centres, the Mexican proper and the Central American.

When early in the 16th century the Spaniards found their way from the West India Islands to this part of the mainland of America, they came in view of nations cultured high above the level they had hitherto met with in the New World. Here were not rude and simple tribes like the islanders of the Antilles, but nations with organized armies, official administrators, courts of justice, high agriculture and mechanical arts, and, what struck the white men especially, stone buildings whose architecture and sculpture were often of dimensions and elaborateness to astonish the builders and sculptors of Europe. How a population of millions could inhabit a world whose very existence had been till then unknown to geographers and historians, and how its nations could have reached so high a grade of barbaric industry and grandeur, was a problem which naturally excited the liveliest curiosity of scholars, and gave rise to a whole literature. Hernandez and Acosta shared the opinion of their time that the great fossil bones found in Mexico were remains of giants, and it was argued that, as before the deluge there were giants on the earth, therefore Mexico was peopled from the Old World in antediluvian times. On the other hand the multitude of native American languages suggested that the migration to America took place after the building of the tower of

Babel, and Siguenza arrived at the curiously definite result that the Mexicans were descended from Naphtuhim, son of Mizraim and grandson of Noah, who left Egypt for Mexico shortly after the confusion of tongues. Although such speculations have fallen out of date, it is to be remembered in their favour that they were stepping-stones to more valid argument; especially they induced the collection of native traditions and invaluable records of races, languages, and customs, which otherwise would have been lost for ever. Even in the present century Lord Kingsborough was led to spend a fortune in printing a magnificent compilation of Mexican picture-writings and documents in his *Antiquities of Mexico* by his zeal to prove the theory advocated by Garcia a century earlier, that the Mexicans were the lost tribes of Israel.

Real information as to the nations of Mexico before Spanish times is very imperfect, but not altogether wanting. It is derived partly from inspection of the natives themselves, their languages and customs, which may be now briefly considered, before going on to the recollections handed down in the native picture-writings and oral traditions. The remarks made by the accurate and experienced observer Alexander von Humboldt, who had seen more American tribes than almost any traveller, are still entitled to the greatest weight. He considered the native Americans of both continents to be substantially similar in race-characters. Such a generalization will become sounder if, as is now generally done by anthropologists, the Eskimo with their pyramidal skulls, dull complexion, and flat noses are removed into a division by themselves. Apart from these polar nomads, the American indigenes group roughly into a single race or division of mankind, of course with local variations. If our attention is turned to the natives of Mexico especially, the unity of type will be found particularly close. The native population of the plateau of Mexico, mainly Aztecs, may still be seen by thousands without any trace of mixture of European blood; and the following description may give a fair idea of their appearance.<sup>1</sup> Their stature is somewhat low, estimated about 5 feet 3 inches, but they are of muscular and sturdy build. Measurements of their skulls show them mesocephalic (index about 78), or intermediate between the dolichocephalic and brachycephalic (narrow and wide skulled) types of mankind. The face is oval, with low forehead, high cheek-bones, long eyes sloping outward towards the temples, fleshy lips, nose wide and in some cases flattish but in others aquiline, coarsely moulded features, with a somewhat stolid and gloomy expression. Thickness of skin, masking the muscles, has been thought the cause of a peculiar heaviness in the outlines of body and face; the complexion varies from yellow-brown to chocolate (about 40 to 43 in the anthropological

<sup>1</sup> References may be found in Bancroft, *Native Races of the Pacific States*, vol. i. pp. 24, 573, 618, 646.

scale); eyes black; straight coarse glossy black hair; beard and moustache scanty. Among variations from this type may be mentioned higher stature in some districts, and lighter complexion in Tehuantepec and elsewhere. If now the native Americans be compared with the races of the regions across the oceans to their east and west, it will be seen that their unlikeness is extreme to the races eastward of them, whether white Europeans or black Africans. On the other hand they are considerably like the Mongoloid peoples of North and East Asia (less so to the Polynesians); so that the tendency among anthropologists is now generally to admit a common origin, however remote, between the tribes of Tartary and of America. This original connexion, if it may be accepted, would seem to belong to a long-past period, to judge from the failure of all attempts to discover an affinity between the languages of America and Asia. At whatever date the Americans began to people America, they must have had time to import or develop the numerous families of languages actually found there, in none of which has community of origin been satisfactorily proved with any other language-group, at home or abroad. In Mexico itself the languages of the Nahua nations, of which the Aztec is the best-known dialect, show no connexion of origin with the language of the Otomi tribes, nor either of these with the languages of the regions of the ruined cities of Central America, the Quiché of Guatemala and the Maya of Yucatan. Indeed, within the Mexican limits, there are various other languages which, so far as philological research can at present decide, are independent of one another. The remarkable phenomenon of nations so similar in bodily make but so distinct in language can hardly be met except by supposing a long period to have elapsed since the country was first inhabited by the ancestors of peoples whose language has since passed into so different forms. The original peopling of America may well date from the time when there was continuous land between it and Asia.

It would not follow, however, that between these remote ages and the time of the discovery of the New World by Columbus no fresh immigrants can have reached America. We may put out of the question the Scandinavian searovers who sailed to Greenland about the 10th century, and appear afterwards to have coasted New England (see *AMERICA*, vol. i. p. 706), but do not seem to have found their way far enough southward for their visit to have any effect on Mexico. But at all times communication has been open from East Asia and even the South Sea islands to the west coast of America. The importance of this is evident when we consider that Japanese junks now drift over by the ocean current to California at the rate of about one a year, often with some of the crew still alive (see C. W. Brooks in Bancroft, vol. v. p. 51; *Overland Monthly*, San Francisco, 1872, p. 353). Further north, the Aleutian islands offer a line of easy sea passage, while in north-east Asia, near Behring's Strait, live Chukchi tribes who carry on intercourse with the American side; the presence of Eskimo in this part of Asia (see Nordenskiöld, *Voy. of Vega*, vol. ii. pp. 13, 81) is so plainly due to local migration that it is neglected in comparing the languages of the two continents. Asiatics such as Japanese or Kurile Islanders, if they found their way in small numbers to America and merged into native tribes, might hardly leave descendants distinguishable from the rest of the population even in the first generation, nor introduce their own language. Such assertions as that the Guatusos of Costa Rica are a tribe with fair skin and flaxen hair, and that Japanese words may be detected among the Indians of British Columbia, are examples of evidence which may be worth further sifting; but in an account like the present no proofs can be admitted unless far better authenticated than these. What gives a more solid

interest to the question of Asiatic influence in America, is that, though neither the evidence of features nor of language has substantiated it, there are details of Mexican civilization which are most easily accounted for on the supposition that they were borrowed from Asia. They do not seem ancient enough to have to do with a remote Asiatic origin of the nations of America, but rather to be results of comparatively modern intercourse between Asia and America, probably since the Christian era. Humboldt (*Vues des Cordillères*, pl. xxiii.) compared the Mexican calendar with that in use in eastern Asia. The Mongols, Tibetans, Chinese, and other neighbouring nations have a cycle or series of twelve animals, viz., rat, bull, tiger, hare, dragon, serpent, horse, goat, ape, cock, dog, pig, which may possibly be an imitation of the ordinary Babylonian-Greek zodiac familiar to ourselves. The Mongolian peoples not only count their lunar months by these signs, but they reckon on the successive days by them, rat-day, bull-day, tiger-day, &c., and also, by combining the twelve signs in rotation with the elements, they obtain a means of marking each year in the sixty-year cycle, as the wood-rat year, the fire-tiger year, &c. This method is highly artificial, consisting, not in mere numbering, but in combining series of different terms so that the same combination does not recur till the end of the period. Thus the reappearance of its principle in the Mexican and Central-American calendar (see p. 212) is suggestive of importation from Asia. Humboldt also discussed the Mexican doctrine, represented in the native pictures, of four ages of the world belonging to water, earth, air, and fire, and ending respectively by deluge, earthquake, tempest, and conflagration. The resemblance of this to some versions of the Hindu doctrine of the four ages or yuga is of so remarkable a closeness as hardly to be accounted for except on the hypothesis that the Mexican theology contains ideas learnt from Asiatics. Among Asiatic points of resemblance to which attention has since been called is the Mexican belief in the nine stages of heaven and hell, an idea which nothing in nature would suggest directly to a barbaric people, but which corresponds to the idea of successive heavens and hells among Brahmans and Buddhists, who apparently learnt it (in common with our own ancestors) from the Babylonian-Greek astronomical theory of successive stages or concentric planetary spheres belonging to the planets, &c. The Spanish chronicles also give accounts of a Mexican game called *patolli*, played at the time of the conquest with coloured stones moved on the squares of a cross-shaped figure, according to the throws of beans marked on one side; the descriptions of this rather complicated game correspond closely with the Hindu backgammon called *pachisi* (see Tylor in *Jour. Anthropol. Inst.*, vol. viii. p. 116).<sup>1</sup>

The native history of Mexico and Central America is entitled to more respect than the mere recollections of savage tribes, inasmuch as here memory was aided by something like written record. The Mexican pictures so far approached writing proper as to set down legibly the names of persons and places and the dates of events, while the rude drawings which accompanied these at least helped the professional historians to remember the traditions repeated orally from generation to generation. Thus actual documents of native Aztec history, or copies of

<sup>1</sup> The appendix to Prescott's *Conquest of Mexico* contains an interesting summary of analogies between the civilization of Mexico and that of the Old World, but some of the arguments are very inconclusive. One which has been often cited turns on the likeness alleged by Naxera between the Chinese language and that of the Otomi nation of Mexico (whose name survives in that of their town Otompan, now Otumba). The examination of an Otomi grammar (such as *Éléments de la Grammaire Othomé*, Paris, 1863) will, however, convince the philological reader that the resemblance is hardly of an amount to found a theory of a Chinese connexion upon.