

sive warfare against all alike.<sup>1</sup> Events now follow in quick succession, and as many as three hundred successful or abortive revolutions are recorded during the brief but stormy life of Mexican national independence.<sup>2</sup> But amid the confusion of empires, republics, dictatorships, and military usurpations, succeeding each other with bewildering rapidity, the thoughtful student will still detect a steady progress towards the ultimate triumph of those Liberal ideas which lie at the base of true national freedom. A brief tabulated summary of the more salient incidents in this eventful struggle must here suffice:—

- 1821-23. Mexican independence acknowledged by Spain; regency under Iturbide, who (1822) is elected hereditary constitutional emperor; in December Santa Anna proclaims the republic in Vera Cruz.
- 1823-24. Provisional Government; Iturbide abdicates; exiled, withdraws to London, but returning is shot (1824).
1824. First Liberal constitution,—"Acta Constitutiva de la Federación Mexicana," then comprising nineteen states and five territories; first president D. Felix Victoria, known as "Guadalupe Victoria."
- 1828-30. Contested presidencies of Pedraza, Guerrero, and Bustamante.
1835. Reaction of the church party; constitution of 1824 abolished; the confederate states fused in a consolidated republic under Santa Anna as president, but practically dictator.
1836. Texas refusing to submit secedes, defeats and captures Santa Anna.
1837. Santa Anna returning resumes office.
1839. Bravo's brief presidency followed by much anarchy.
- 1841-44. Santa Anna's first dictatorship with two others.
1844. Constitution restored with Santa Anna president; banished same year, he is succeeded by Canalizo.
1845. Herrera president; disastrous war with United States to recover Texas.
1846. Santa Anna again president.
1848. Treaty of Guadalupe; California and New Mexico ceded to United States.
1853. Santa Anna's second dictatorship; treaty of Mesilla (negotiated by Gadsden) ceding extensive territory to United States and reducing Mexico to its present limits; great financial embarrassment; "Plan of Ayutla"; flight of Santa Anna followed by universal chaos.
1855. Provisional Government under President Comonfort.
1856. Constitutional convention; radical reforms; rupture with Spain.
1857. Liberal constitution of March 11; suspended December 1; Comonfort dictator; the reaction supported by the church, large part of the army, and all Conservatives; opposed at Vera Cruz by Vice-president Benito Juarez at the head of the "Puros," or advanced Liberals; the "War of Reform" begins, and lasts till 1860.
- 1858-59. In the capital Comonfort is deposed by Zuloaga, who abdicates in favour of Miramon, general of the Conservative forces; but, declining the presidency, Miramon restores Zuloaga; British legation violated; in Vera Cruz the United States envoy MacLean acknowledges Juarez, who introduces further Liberal measures.
1860. Capitulation of Guadalajara; flight of Miramon from the capital; triumph of the Liberals.
1861. Triumphal entry of Juarez into the capital; further radical reforms; marriage declared a civil contract; celibacy and ecclesiastical tribunals suppressed; confiscation of church property valued at £75,000,000 and over a third of the soil; final separation of church and state; Spain, France, and England urge claims for losses of their subjects resident in Mexico; convention of London; intervention of the allies, who occupy Vera Cruz in December.
1862. England and Spain withdraw, their claims having been settled by negotiation; war continued by France.
- 1863-64. The capital occupied by the French; Louis Napoleon dreams of a universal fusion of the Latin races; offers the Mexican imperial crown to the Austrian archduke Ferdinand Maximilian, who accepts, and arrives in June 1864.
1867. After diverse issues the French withdraw; Maximilian, abandoned to his fate, is captured and shot at Querétaro (June 19).

<sup>1</sup> In December 1852 a party of seventy-five Mexicans and Americans were massacred in the state of Chihuahua by a band of Bravos.

<sup>2</sup> Between 1821 and 1868 the form of government was changed ten times; over fifty persons succeeded each other as presidents, dictators, or emperors; both emperors were shot, Iturbide in 1824, Maximilian in 1867, and according to some calculations there occurred at least three hundred *pronunciamientos*.

1867-69. Various *pronunciamientos* by Santa Anna and others.

1871-72. Juarez president; he dies in office July 1872; succeeded by his secretary Lerdo de Tejada.

1873-74. The Liberal constitution of 1857, which had been twice suspended (1858-60 and 1863-67), is now largely amended, and continues to be henceforth the organic law of Mexico.

1876. Tejada succeeded by Porfirio Diaz.

1880. Manuel Gonzalez, reigning president.

Since 1869 the Liberal party has succeeded in preserving peace at home and abroad, while establishing democratic institutions on a firm basis. A. v. Humboldt's gloomy anticipations<sup>3</sup> have not been realized, and for the first time in its chequered history Mexico may look forward with some confidence to a bright future. The plague spot is the uncivilized Indian element. But with boundless natural resources at its disposal, a wise administration may hope to overcome that difficulty, and gradually effect a complete fusion of the antagonistic racial elements.

*Literature.*—J. Frost, *History of Mexico and its Wars*, with addenda by A. Hawkins, New Orleans, 1882; T. U. Brocklehurst, *Mexico To-day*, London, 1882; Lorenzo Castro, *Mexico in 1882*, New York, 1882; Aubertin, *A Flight to Mexico*, 1882; E. Busto, *Estadística de la República Mexicana*, Mexico, 1880; Don Lucas Alamán, *Historia de Mexico*, Mexico, 1849-52; J. M. L. Mora, *Mexico y sus Revoluciones*, Paris, 1836; E. K. H. von Richthofen, *Die politischen Zustände der Republik Mexico*, Berlin, 1854-59; W. H. Prescott, *History of the Conquest of Mexico*, New York, 1847; E. Mühlensfordt, *Schilderung der Rep. Mexico*, besonders in Beziehung auf Geographie, Ethnographie, und Statistik, Hanover, 1844; A. R. Thümmler, *Mexico und die Mexikaner in physischer, socialer, und politischer Beziehung*, Erlangen, 1848; Brantz Mayer, *Mexico as it was and as it is*, New York, 1844, and *Mexico, Aztec, Spanish, and Republican*, Hartford, 1853; F. W. von Egloffstein, *Contributions to the Geology and the Physical Geography of Mexico*, New York, 1864; J. C. Beltrami, *Le Mexique*, Paris, 1830; Madame C. [Calderon] de la B. [Barca], *Life in Mexico*, &c., with preface by W. H. Prescott, London, 1843; A. M. Gilliam, *Travels over the Table-lands and Cordilleras of Mexico*, Philadelphia, 1846; A. von Humboldt, *Vues des Cordillères et monuments des peuples indigènes de l'Amérique*, Paris, 1810, and *Versuch über den politischen Zustand des Königreichs Mexiko*, Tübingen, 1809-13 (French edn., Paris, 1811); Miguel Lerdo de Tejada, *Comercio exterior de Mexico desde la Conquista hasta hoy*, Mexico, 1853; John Macgregor, *States of Mexico* (commercial tariffs, &c.), London, 1846; *Anales del Ministerio de fomento, colonización, industria, y comercio de la República Mexicana y repertorio de noticias sobre ciencias, artes, y estadística nacional y extranjera*, Mexico, 1851-55; *Memoria sobre el estado de la agricultura y industria de la República, que la dirección general de estos ramos presenta al Gobierno Supremo*, &c., Mexico, 1843-46; Don Mariano Galvez, *Industria Nacional*, Mexico, 1845, and *Estatuto organico de la República Mexicana*, Mexico, 1857; H. W. Bates, *Central America*, &c., with ethnological appendix by A. H. Keane, London, 1878; *Surveys of the French Corps Expéditionnaire embodied in the Carte de Mexique*, with accompanying monograph by M. Niox, Paris, 1873. Other large and more or less trustworthy maps are—A. G. Cuba, *Carta Geográfica*, Mexico, 1874; *The Library Map of Mexico*, Chicago, 1882; Humboldt, *Atlas Géographique et physique du Royaume de la Nouvelle Espagne*, Paris, 1811; *Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Mexico*, &c., published by J. Disturnell, New York, 1847; *Brucé, Carte générale des États-Unis Mexicains*, Paris, 1825; H. Kiepert, *Mexico, Texas, and Californien*, Weimar, 1847; F. de Gerolt y C. de Berghes, *Carta geognostica de los principales distritos minerales del Estado de Mexico formada sobre observaciones astronómicas, barométricas, y minerales*, Mexico, 1827; the large physical and geological maps accompanying Von Egloffstein's above-quoted work; and a good relief map in F. Ratzel's *Das Mexiko*, Breslau, 1878. (A. H. K.)

### III. THE CITY OF MEXICO.

Mexico, the capital formerly of the Aztec empire and of the Spanish colony of New Spain, and now of the republic, state, and federal district of Mexico, stands on the Anahuac plateau, 7524 feet above sea-level,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the south-west side of Lake Tezcuco (Texcoco), the lowest and largest of six basins filling the deepest depression in the hill-encircled Mexican valley. Situated in  $19^{\circ} 25' 45''$  N. lat. and  $99^{\circ} 7'$  W. long., it is 173 miles by rail from Vera Cruz on the Atlantic, 290 from Acapulco on the Pacific, 285 from Oajaca, 863 from Matamoros on the United States frontier. Mexico is the largest and finest city in Spanish America, forming a square nearly 3 miles both ways, and laid out with perfect regularity, all its six hundred streets and lanes running at right angles north to south and east to west, and covering within the walls an area of about 10 square miles, with a population (in 1880) of 230,000. Most of the inhabitants are pure-blood Indians or mestizoes; but the foreigners, chiefly French, English, Germans, Americans, and Spaniards, monopolize nearly all the trade, and as capitalists, bankers, merchants, and dealers enjoy an influence out of all proportion to their numbers. A large portion of the natives are mendicants or vagrants, and the distinctly criminal element (26,470 in 1878) is kept in order by a police force of 1320 men; yet in that year there were as many as 5370 knife-attacks and 3250 robberies. The

<sup>3</sup> Consulted shortly before his death as to the future prospects of Mexico, with which his name was so intimately associated, Humboldt ventured to prophesy that "die Vereinigten Staaten werden es an sich reissen und dann selbst zerfallen."

broad, well-paved, and gas-lit streets present a picturesque appearance with their quaint two- and three-storied stone houses gaily painted in white, red, yellow, or green, and terminating everywhere with a background of rugged sierras or snowy peaks which, owing to the bright atmosphere at this elevation, seem quite close, although really 30 or 40 miles distant. All the main thoroughfares converge on the central Plaza de Armas (Plaza Mayor, or Main Square), which covers 14 acres, and is tastefully laid out with shady trees, garden plots, marble fountains, and seats. Here also are grouped most of the public buildings, towering above which is the cathedral, the largest and most sumptuous church in America, which faces the north side of the plaza on the site of the great pyramidal teocalli or temple of Huitzilopochtli, titular god of the Aztecs. This edifice, which was founded in 1573 and finished in 1657, at a cost of £400,000 for the walls alone, forms a Greek cross 426 feet long and 203 wide, with two great naves and three aisles, twenty side chapels, and a magnificent high altar supported by marble columns, and surrounded by a tumbago balustrade with sixty-two statues of the same rich gold, silver, and copper alloy serving as candelabra. The elaborately carved choir is also enclosed by tumbago railings made in Macao, weighing 26 tons, and valued at about £300,000. In the interior the Doric style prevails, Renaissance in the exterior, which is adorned by a fine dome and two open towers 218 feet high. At the foot of the left tower is placed the famous calendar stone, the most interesting relic of Aztec culture. The east side of the plaza is occupied by the old viceregal residence, now the National Palace, with 675 feet frontage, containing most of the Government offices (ministerial, cabinet, treasury), military headquarters, archives, meteorological department with observatory, and the spacious hall of ambassadors with some remarkable paintings by Miranda and native artists. North of the National Palace, and apparently forming portions of it, are the post-office and the national museum of natural history and antiquities, with a priceless collection of Mexican remains. Close to the cathedral stands the Monte de Piedad, or national pawnshop, a useful institution, endowed in 1744 by Terreros with £75,000, and now possessing nearly £2,000,000 of accumulated funds. Facing the cathedral is the Palacio Municipal (city hall), 252 feet by 122, rebuilt in 1792 at a cost of £30,000, and containing the city and district offices, the corporation jail, and the lonja, or merchants' exchange. Around the Plaza San Domingo are grouped the convent of that name, said to contain vast treasures buried within its walls, the old inquisition, now the school of medicine, and the custom-house. In the same neighbourhood are the church of the Jesuits and the school of arts, "an immense workshop, including iron and brass foundries, carriage and cart mending, building and masonry, various branches of joinery and upholstery work, and silk and cotton hand-weaving" (Brocklehurst). Other noteworthy buildings are the national picture gallery of San Carlos, the finest in America, in which the Florentine and Flemish schools are well represented, and which contains the famous Las Casas by Felix Parra; the national library of St Augustine, with over 100,000 volumes, numerous MSS., and many rare old Spanish books; the mint, which since 1690 has issued coinage, chiefly silver, to the amount of nearly £400,000,000; the Iturbide hotel, formerly the residence of the emperor Iturbide; the Minería, or school of mines, with lecture-rooms, laboratories, rich mineralogical and geological specimens, and a fossil horse 3 feet high of the Pleistocene period. Owing to the spongy nature of the soil, the Minería and many other structures have settled out of the perpendicular, thus often presenting irregular lines and a rickety appearance. Among the twenty

scientific institutes mention should be made of the Geographical and Statistical Society, whose meteorological department issues charts and maps of unsurpassed excellence.

Besides the chief market south of the National Palace there are three others, all well stocked with meat, fish, and especially vegetables, fruits, and flowers grown mainly on the *chinampas*, or floating gardens of Lakes Chalco and Xochimilco. These gardens, which were far more numerous in the Aztec times, are formed by placing layers of turf on the matted aquatic vegetable growths to a height of 2 or 3 feet above the water, and securing them by long willow poles driven through them to the bottom, where they take root. They form plots 100 to 200 feet long by 20 to 100 broad, and are firm enough to support the huts of the cultivators. From the still extant illuminated tribute-rolls it appears that the Aztec rulers derived a large share of the taxes from these gardens, which at that time also covered the brackish waters of Lake Tezcuco.

Before 1860 half of the city consisted of churches, convents, and other ecclesiastical structures, most of which have been sequestered and converted into libraries, stores, warehouses, and even stables, or pulled down for civic improvements. Nevertheless there still remain fourteen parish and thirty other churches, some of large size with towers and domes, and their number has now been increased by six Protestant churches including the Anglican cathedral in San Francisco Street. This is the leading thoroughfare, and is rivalled in splendour only by the new Cinco de Mayo Street running from the National Theatre to the cathedral.

The city is supplied by two monumental aqueducts, from Chapultepec and the south-west, with good water at the rate of 44 gallons per day per inhabitant.

Its industries are varied but unimportant, consisting chiefly of gold and silver work, coarse glazed and unglazed pottery of peculiar form and ornamentation, paper, feather-work remarkable for its taste and beautiful designs, toys, rosaries, crucifixes, religious pictures, lace, and some weaving.

Mexico enjoys an equable climate, with a temperature varying from  $70^{\circ}$  to  $50^{\circ}$  F., but rendered unhealthy by the exhalations from the lakes and the bad drainage. The death-rate in 1876 was 59 per 1000, and 45 in 1878, pneumonia being most fatal (12 per cent. of the total). Standing at the lowest level of a lacustrine valley, 1400 square miles in extent, and completely encircled by hills with no natural outlet, the city has always been subject to floodings from the overflow of the neighbouring freshwater Lakes Zumpango and Xaltocan on the north and Xochimilco and Chalco on the south, which, in the 17th century, laid the whole district under water in 1607, and again for five years from 1629 to 1634. To remedy the evil the engineer Martinez began in 1607 the great cutting 13 miles long through the Nochistongo hill in order to draw off the discharge of Lake Zumpango, the highest in the valley, to the river Tula, a tributary of the Panuco, flowing to the Atlantic. This work, which cost the lives of 70,000 natives, was completed in 1789; but the result was not satisfactory, and the city is still often flooded.

The chief public promenades are the Alameda, planted with stately beeches; the Vega, skirted by the Vega Canal, and adorned with the colossal bust of Guatemozin, the last of the Aztec emperors; the Paseo de la Reforma, a fine avenue 3 miles long running south to the famous castle of Chapultepec, a place intimately associated with the names both of Montezuma and Maximilian. The present castle, erected in 1785 by the viceroy Galvez on the site of Montezuma's palace, commands a superb view of the city and surrounding district, and is approached by avenues of gigantic cypresses (*Cupressus disticha*) dating from Aztec times, growing to a height of 120 feet, and measuring from 30 to 40 feet round the stem. Other good roads with horse or steam trams lead to Tacubaya and the "Noche Triste" tree, where Cortes is traditionally supposed to have rested after the disastrous retreat from Mexico on the night of June 30, 1520, to the pleasant summer suburb of Tacubaya, and to the renowned shrine of Our Lady of Guadalupe, 3 miles to the east on the border of Lake Tezcuco. Here stands the most famous church in Mexico, erected to commemorate the legendary apparitions of the Madonna to the Indian Juan Diego in December 1531, and still visited by thousands of pilgrims or sightseers.

Mexico dates either from the year 1325 or 1327, when the Aztecs after long wanderings over the plateau were directed by the oracle to settle at this spot. For here had been witnessed the auspicious omen of an eagle perched on a nopal (cactus) and devouring a snake. Hence the original name of the city, Tenochtitlan (nopal on a stone), changed afterwards to Mexico in honour of the war god Mexitli. With the progress of Aztec culture the place rapidly improved, and about 1450 the old mud and rush houses were replaced by solid stone structures erected partly on piles amid the islets of Lake Tezcuco, and grouped round the central enclosure of the great teocalli. The city had reached its highest splendour on the arrival of the Spaniards in 1519, when it comprised from 50,000 to 60,000 houses, with perhaps 500,000 inhabitants, and seemed to Cortes "like a thing of fairy creation rather than the work of mortal hands" (Prescott). It was at that time about 12 miles in circum-

ference, every where intersected by canals, and connected with the mainland by six long and solidly constructed causeways, as is clearly shown by the plan given in the edition of Cortes's letters published at Nuremberg in 1524 (reproduced in vol. iv. of H. H. Bancroft's *History of the Pacific States*, San Francisco, 1833, p. 280). After its almost total destruction in November 1521, Cortes employed some 400,000 natives in rebuilding it on the same site; but since then the lake seems to have considerably subsided, for although still 50 square miles in extent it is very shallow and has retired 2½

MEYERBEER, GIACOMO (1791–1863), first known in Germany as Jakob Meyer Beer, was born at Berlin on September 5, 1791,<sup>1</sup> of a wealthy and talented Jewish family. His father, Herz Beer, was a banker; his mother, Amalie (née Wulf), was a woman of high intellectual culture; and two of his brothers distinguished themselves in astronomy and literature. He studied the pianoforte, first under Lauska, and afterwards under Lauska's master, Clementi. When seven years old he played Mozart's Concerto in D Minor in public, and at nine he was pronounced the best pianist in Berlin. For composition he was placed under Zelter, whose lessons were soon exchanged for those of Bernard Weber, then director of the Berlin opera, by whom he was introduced to the Abbé Vogler. Struck by his brilliant talent, Vogler invited him to Darmstadt, and in 1810 received him into his house, where he formed an intimate friendship with Karl Maria von Weber, who, though his senior by eight years, shared the daily lessons he received from the abbé in counterpoint, fugue, and extempore organ-playing. At the end of two years the grand-duke appointed Meyerbeer composer to the court. His early works, however, were far from successful,—his first opera, *Jephtha's Gelübde*, failing lamentably at Darmstadt in 1811, and his second, *Wirth und Gast (Alimetele)*, at Vienna in 1814. These checks discouraged him so cruelly that he feared he had mistaken his vocation. Nevertheless, by advice of Salieri, he determined to study vocalization in Italy, and then to form a new style. But at Venice he was so captivated by the style of Rossini that, renouncing all thought of originality, he produced a succession of seven Italian operas—*Romilda e Costanza*, *Semiramide riconosciuta*, *Edouardo e Cristina*, *Emma di Rosburgo*, *Margherita d'Anjou*, *L'Esule di Granata*, and *Il Crociato in Egitto*—which all achieved a success as brilliant as it was unexpected. Against this act of treason to German art Weber protested most earnestly; and before long Meyerbeer himself grew tired of his defection, though the success of *Il Crociato* was so great that he was crowned upon the stage. An invitation to Paris in 1826 led him to review his position fairly and dispassionately, and he could not conceal from himself the fact that he was wasting in imitation powers which, rightly used, might make his name immortal. For several years after this he produced nothing in public; but, in concert with Scribe, he planned the work which first made known the reality of his transcendent genius—his first French opera, *Robert le Diable*. This gorgeous drama was produced at the Grand Opéra in 1831, and received with acclamation. It was the first of its race, a grand romantic opera, abounding with scenes of startling interest, with situations more powerfully dramatic than any that had been attempted either by Cherubini or Rossini, with mysterious horrors and chivalric pomp, and with ballet music such as had never yet been heard, even in Paris. Its popularity exceeded all previous expectation; yet for five years after this signal triumph Meyerbeer appeared before the public no more. We cannot doubt that his motive for this retirement was the determination to produce something greater still; and

<sup>1</sup> Or, according to some accounts, 1794.

miles from the city. During the Spanish rule the chief event was the revolt of 1692, when the municipal buildings were destroyed. Since then Mexico has been the scene of many revolutions, and after the battle of Chapultepec (September 13, 1847) the city was held by the United States troops till the treaty of Guadalupe, May 1848. But since the disorders ending with the death of Maximilian it has turned to peaceful ways, and has become a great centre of civilizing influences for the surrounding semi-barbarous peoples. (A. H. K.)

in some respects his next opera, *Les Huguenots*, really was greater, though it fell short of the deep romance which rendered *Robert le Diable* so incomparably captivating.

The first performance of *Les Huguenots* took place in 1836. In gorgeous colouring, in depth of passion, in consistency of dramatic treatment, and in careful delineation of individual character, it is at least the equal of *Robert le Diable*. In two points only did its interest fall short of that inspired by the earlier work. Meyerbeer had shown himself so great a master in his treatment of the supernatural that one regretted the unavoidable omission of that powerful element in his second grand opera; and, more important still, the fifth act of *Les Huguenots* was so arranged by the librettist as to render effective musical treatment impossible. The substitution of a noisy fusillade for a legitimate dramatic situation was fatal to the anticipated climax. The music which accompanies this division of the work is necessarily inferior to all that precedes it. The true interest of the drama culminates at the close of the fourth act, when Raoul, leaping from the window, leaves Valentine fainting upon the ground. The spectator needs not to be told that the former will be shot down the moment he arrives in the street, or that the latter will mourn for him to the end of her days. Neither musically nor dramatically does anything more remain to be said; and therefore it is that those who quit the theatre when the curtain falls for the fourth time carry away with them a far more perfect ideal than those who remain to the end.

After the production of *Les Huguenots* Meyerbeer again retired from public view, and spent many years in the preparation of two of his greatest works—the greatest of all except the two we have already mentioned—*L'Africaine* and *Le Prophète*. The libretti of both these operas were furnished by Scribe; and both were subjected to countless changes of detail before they satisfied the composer's fastidious taste; in fact, the story of *L'Africaine* was more than once entirely rewritten.

Meanwhile Meyerbeer accepted the appointment of kapellmeister to the king of Prussia, and spent some years at Berlin, where he produced *Ein Feldlager in Schlesien*, a German opera, in which the matchless cantatrice Jenny Lind made her first appearance in Prussia, with unprecedented success. Here also he composed, in 1846, the overture to his brother Michael's drama, *Struensee*. But his chief care at this period was bestowed upon the worthy presentation of the works of others. He began by producing his dead friend Weber's *Euryanthe*, with scrupulous attention to the composer's original idea. With equal unselfishness he procured the acceptance of *Rienzi* and *Der Fliegende Holländer*, the first two operas of Richard Wagner, who, then languishing in poverty and exile, would, but for him, have found it impossible to obtain a hearing in Berlin. With Jenny Lind as prima donna and Meyerbeer as conductor, the opera flourished brilliantly in the Prussian capital; but the anxieties of this thankless period materially shortened the composer's life.

Meyerbeer produced *Le Prophète* at Paris in 1849; and, if it did not at first create so great a sensation as *Les Huguenots*, this was simply because it needed to be better

known. In 1854 he brought out *L'Étoile du Nord* at the Opéra Comique, and in 1859 *Le Pardon de Ploermel (Dinorah)*. His last great work, *L'Africaine*, was in active preparation at the Académie when, on the 23d of April 1863, he was seized with a sudden illness, of which he died on the 2d of May. *L'Africaine* was produced with pious attention to the composer's minutest wishes, on April 28, 1865, and fully justified the expectation which had been raised by his long and painstaking consideration of its details. Upon this, in conjunction with *Robert le Diable*, *Les Huguenots*, and *Le Prophète*, his fame now almost entirely rests.

Meyerbeer's genius has been criticized with widely different results. Mendelssohn thought his style exaggerated; Fétis thought him one of the most original geniuses of the age; Wagner calls him "a miserable music-maker," and "a Jewish banker to whom it occurred to compose operas." But the reality of his talent has been recognized throughout all Europe; and, in spite of the acknowledged crudity of his system of phrasing, and the inequality of merit too plainly observable even in his greatest works, his name will live so long as intensity of passion and power of dramatic treatment are regarded as indispensable characteristics of dramatic music. (W. S. R.)

MÉZIÈRES, a fortress of the first class, and the capital of the département of Ardennes, France, is 161 miles to the north-east of Paris by railway, on a peninsula of the Meuse, which almost entirely surrounds the town, and separates it from its more important suburb, Charleville. The fortifications, which, as well as the citadel, are the work of Vauban, are pierced by four gates, giving access to the town, the streets of which are narrow and winding. The parish church, erected in the 16th century, contains two inscriptions in commemoration respectively of the raising of the siege of Mézières in 1521 and the marriage of Charles IX. with the daughter of the emperor Maximilian II., which was celebrated at Mézières in 1570. The north and south portals, the glass of the windows, and the lofty vaultings of the church are worthy of remark. The hôtel de ville contains several interesting pictures relating to the history of the town. The iron industry, the only one of any importance, is being gradually transferred to Charleville. The population in 1881 was 6120.

Founded in the 9th century, Mézières was at first only a stronghold belonging to the bishops of Rheims, which afterwards became the property of the counts of Rethel. The town was increased by successive immigrations of the people of Liège, flying first from the emperor Otho, and afterwards from Charles the Bold; and also by concessions from the counts of Rethel. Its walls were built in the 13th century, and in 1521 it was successfully defended by Bayard against the imperialists. The anniversary of the deliverance of the town is still observed yearly on the 27th of September. The school of military engineering, since transferred successively to Metz and Fontainebleau, was originally founded at Mézières.

MEZŐ-TŰR,<sup>1</sup> a corporate town in the Cis-Tisian county of Jász-Nagy-Kun-Szolnok, Hungary, situated on the right bank of the Berettyó, and on the railway from Arad to Szolnok, in 47° 1' N. lat., 20° 39' E. long. It has Roman Catholic and Calvinist churches and schools, a judicial court for the circuit, and the usual Government offices, but can boast of few buildings of special interest. Horses, oxen, and sheep are reared in great numbers on the wide-spreading communal lands, which are productive also of cereals, and especially wheat, rape-seed, and maize. On the 31st December 1880 the population amounted to 20,649 (10,265 males, 10,384 females), mostly Magyars by nationality.

MEZZOFANTI, GIUSEPPE (1774–1849), cardinal, whose colloquial linguistic acquirements have become proverbial, was born, September 17, 1774, at Bologna, where his father followed the occupation of a carpenter. Educated first at one of the "scuole pie," and afterwards at the

<sup>1</sup> Mező is a Magyar word, signifying *Field*, prefixed to many agricultural localities in Hungary.

episcopal seminary of his native city, he was ordained to the priesthood in 1797, and in the same year became professor of Arabic in the university, but shortly afterwards was deprived on account of his refusal to take the oath of allegiance to the Government of the Cisalpine Republic. In 1803, however, he was appointed assistant librarian of the institute of Bologna, and soon afterwards was reinstated as professor of Oriental languages and of Greek. The chair was suppressed by the viceroy in 1808, but again rehabilitated on the restoration of Pius VII. in 1814, and continued to be held by Mezzofanti until his removal from Bologna to Rome in 1831, when he received certain ecclesiastical appointments and the rank of monsignore. Meanwhile his progress in the acquirement of languages had been rapid and untiring, and in 1833 he was appointed to succeed Mai as chief keeper of the Vatican Library. His promotion to the cardinalate, and the duties of director of studies in the Congregation of the Propaganda, followed in 1838. He died at Rome, during the absence of the pontifical court at Gaeta, on March 15, 1849.

Mezzofanti's peculiar talent, comparable in many respects to that of the numerous "calculating boys" who have been the wonder of their contemporaries, was not combined with any exceptional measure of intellectual power, and accordingly produced nothing that has not perished with him. It seems to be well established, however, that he spoke with considerable fluency, and in some cases even with attention to dialectic peculiarities, some fifty or sixty languages of the most widely separated families, besides having a less perfect acquaintance with many others. See Manavit, *Esquisse historique sur le Cardinal Mezzofanti*, Paris, 1854; and Russell, *Life of the Cardinal Mezzofanti*, London, 1857.

MEZZOTINT. See ENGRAVING.

MIAUTSE. The Miautse or Meaou-tse of southern China are one of the aboriginal tribes of the country. At one time they occupied a considerable portion of the rich and fertile lands which now form the central province of the empire, but as the Chinese advanced southwards they were driven, like the Ainos in Japan and the Welsh in Britain, into the more inaccessible districts until they were compelled to seek refuge from the invaders in the mountain ranges, in the provinces of Yunnan, Kwei-chow, Kwang-se, and Kwang-tung, where they are found at the present day. This line of mountains extends for about 400 miles, and, being in many parts high, steep, and rugged, it forms a convenient shelter for them. As early as the reign of king Seuen (about 800 B.C.) we read of an expedition having been sent to drive them out of Hoo-nan, and since that time they have been periodically attacked either to punish them for misdeeds or to make them yield up vineyards coveted by Chinese A-habs. The last important campaign against them was undertaken by the emperor K'een-lung, who, having completely subjugated the Eleuths, was desirous of bringing under his yoke these mountain tribesmen. But the same success which had attended his arms in the north did not follow them to the south. The first expedition was utterly defeated, and the general in command paid the penalty of discomfiture with his head. The leader of a second expedition, having learned wisdom by the fate of his predecessor, purchased the submission of the Miautse by a large bribe. As soon as the unsuspecting savages had been thus lulled into security a third army was set in motion against them. This time, being unprepared, they suffered a crushing defeat, and were compelled to purchase peace by swearing allegiance to their conquerors. But, though the Chinese thus gained sovereignty over them, they have since deemed it wise to content themselves with but the shadow of authority. No real jurisdiction is ever exercised over these hardy mountaineers. They are allowed to govern themselves on their own patriarchal system. The old men of each tribe manage the affairs of their juniors, and command an obedience which would be utterly refused to the mandate of any mandarin. In figure the Miautse,