

but it is not so rich in MSS. as the celebrated Ambrosian library, for which see LIBRARIES, vol. xiv. p. 531.

**Agriculture.**—The district of Milan is renowned for its excellent agriculture. It may be divided into two regions, where different systems of farming are pursued and different crops produced. The first region lies on the lower slopes of the Alps, where they sink into the plain. This is called the dry Milanese, for it is watered by torrents only, which have worn themselves too deep a bed to allow of irrigation, and the peasants are obliged to collect the rain-water in large mud-lined tanks called "poppe." The soil is for the most part thin and light, and is frequently washed down the incline into the plain; in some parts it is only kept in its place by stone walls reared at great cost. The farms are smaller here than in the lower plain, and are let on a system which is a compromise between the mezzadria, which once obtained in the district, and regular leases. The tenant pays a money rent for the house; and for the land he either pays in kind or in a money equivalent, supplemented by labour given to the landlord. In cases where vines or fruit trees are grown, the landlord supplies and maintains them till they come into fruit. The landlord carries out all improvements, and the tenant holds the farm at his pleasure. The rotation of cropping is for three years. The value of these farms varies greatly, ranging from 7 to 14 lire the pertica (1000 square yards). The district produces maize and wheat in abundance, a little flax and millet, apples, and wine. The second agricultural district is that which lies in the plain; it is called the wet Milanese, from the elaborate system of irrigation which makes the meadows yield a constant succession of crops. The plain is traversed by innumerable canals at various levels, crossing one another on bridges, or by siphons, so that the peasant can flood his fields at any moment. The system is as old as the 12th century; it was improved by Leonardo da Vinci, and is now the most perfect network of irrigation in Europe. The farms vary in extent from 1500 to 4500 pertiche. They are let upon leases for nine, twelve, or fifteen years, at rents ranging from 8-50 to 12-50 lire the pertica, while those near a city may bring from 15 to 20 lire. The rotation of cropping is five-yearly. The meadows yield four crops of grass in the year; the first three—the maggengo, the agostino, and the terzuolo—are cut, the fourth is grazed off. Where the ground is perfectly flat and water can stagnate, rice is grown; this crop is continued for four years in succession, then the land is rested with cereals and grass. The other crops are maize and wheat. But the chief occupation is the supply of dairy produce. The cows are bought in the Swiss cantons of Uri, Zug, Lucerne, and Schwyz, the last furnishing the best milkers. The cheese called Parmesan comes from the Milanese; and the rich cheese, made of unskimmed milk, known as Stracchino, is made principally at the village of Gorgonzola, 12 miles east of Milan.

**Industries.**—The industries of this district have increased very rapidly since the union of Italy, and the city is now the chief commercial centre in North Italy. The principal industry of Milan and the Milanese is the production and manufacture of silk. For feeding the worms mulberry trees are largely cultivated on the plain; and the district counts upwards of 200 factories, where the silk thread is unwound from the cocoons, yielding 4,000,000 lb of raw silk in the year. Some of this is exported to France for manufacture, but the Milanese can now almost rival their neighbours in the production of silk stuffs, velvets, and brocades. Cotton is manufactured at Saronno and Legnano, fustian at Busto, linen at Cassano, combs at Burlando, and porcelain and carriages of very excellent workmanship in Milan itself.

**History.**—Bellovesus, king of the Celts, who crossed the Alps when Tarquinius Priscus was king in Rome, is the traditional founder of Milan. The city became the capital of the Insubrian Gauls, and was taken by the Romans in 222 B.C. As a Roman municipium it continued to increase in magnificence and importance; and under Constantine it was the seat of the imperial vicar of the West. Under Theodosius, in the 4th century, Milan, to judge from Ausonius's description (*Ordo Nob. Urbium*, v.), must have been rich in temples and public buildings. Theodosius died at Milan after doing penance, at the bidding of St. Ambrose, for his slaughter of the people of Thessalonica. Ambrose is still venerated in Milan as the founder of the Milanese church and the compiler of the Ambrosian rite, which is still in use throughout the diocese. After his death the period of invasions begins; and Milan felt the power of the Huns under Attila (452), of the Heruli under Odoacer (476), and of the Goths under Theodoric (493). When Belisarius was sent by Justinian to recover Italy, Datus, the archbishop of Milan, joined him, and the Goths were expelled from the city. But Uraia, nephew of Vitigis the Gothic king, subsequently assaulted and retook the town, after a brave resistance. Uraia destroyed the whole of Milan in 539; and hence it is that this city, once so important a centre of Roman civilization, possesses so few remains of antiquity. Narsés, in his campaigns against the Goths, had invited other barbarians, the Lombards, to his aid. They came in a body under Alboin, their king, in 568,

and were soon masters of North Italy, and entered Milan the year following. Alboin established his capital at Pavia, and Milan remained the centre of Italian opposition to the foreign conquest.

The Lombards were Arians, and the archbishops of Milan from the days of Ambrose had been always orthodox. Though the struggle was unequal, their attitude of resolute opposition to the Lombards gained for them great weight among the people, who felt that their archbishop was a power around whom they might gather for the defence of their liberty and religion. All the innate hatred of the foreigner went to strengthen the hands of the archbishops, who slowly acquired, in addition to their spiritual authority, powers military, executive, and judicial. These powers they came to administer through their delegates, called viscounts. When the Lombard kingdom fell before the Franks under Charles the Great in 774, the archbishops of Milan were still further strengthened by the close alliance between Charles and the church, which gave a sort of confirmation to their temporal authority, and also by Charles's policy of breaking up the great Lombard fiefs and dukedoms, for which he substituted the smaller counties. Under the confused government of Charles's immediate successors the archbishop was the only real power in Milan. But there were two classes of difficulties in the situation, ecclesiastical and political; and their presence had a marked effect on the development of the people and the growth of the commune, which was the next stage in the history of Milan. On the one hand the archbishop was obliged to contend against heretics or against fanatical reformers who found a following among the people; and on the other, since the archbishop was the real power in the city, the emperor, the nobles, and the people each desired that he should be of their party; and to whichever party he did belong he was certain to find himself violently opposed by the other two. From these causes it sometimes happened that there were two archbishops, and therefore no central control, or no archbishop at all, or else an archbishop in exile. The chief result of these difficulties was that a spirit of independence and a capacity of judging and acting for themselves was developed in the people of Milan. The terror of the Hunnish invasion, in 899, further assisted the people in their progress towards freedom, for it compelled them to take arms and to fortify their city, rendering Milan more than ever independent of the feudal lords who lived in their castles in the country. The tyranny of these nobles drove the peasantry and smaller vassals to seek the protection for life and property, the equality of taxation and of justice, which could be found only inside the walled city and under the rule of the archbishop. Thus Milan grew populous, and learned to govern itself. Its inhabitants became for the first time Milanese, attached to the standard of St. Ambrose,—no longer subjects of a foreign conqueror, but a distinct people, with a municipal life and prospects of their own. For the further growth of the commune, the action of the great archbishop Heribert, the establishment of the carroccio, the development of Milanese supremacy in Lombardy, the destruction of Lodi, Como, Pavia, and other neighbouring cities, the exhibition of free spirit and power in the Lombard league, and the battle of Legnano, see the article ITALY. See also LOMBARDS.

After the battle of Legnano, in 1174, although the Lombard cities failed to reap the fruit of their united action, and fell to mutual jealousy once more, Milan internally began to grow in material prosperity. After the peace of Constance (1183) the city walls were extended; the arts flourished, each in its own quarter, under a syndic who watched the interests of the trade. The manufacture of armour was the most important industry. During the struggles with the emperor Barbarossa, when freedom seemed on the point of being destroyed, many Milanese vowed themselves, their goods, and their families to the Virgin should their city come safely out of her troubles. Hence arose the powerful fraternity of the "Umiliati," who established their headquarters at the Brera, and began to develop the wool trade, and subsequently gave the first impetus to the production of silk. From this period also date the irrigation works which render the Lombard plain a fertile garden. The government of the city consisted of (A) a parlamento or consiglio grande, including all who possessed bread and wine of their own,—a council soon found to be unmanageable owing to its size, and reduced first to 2000, then to 1500, and finally to 800 members; (B) a credenza or committee of twelve members, elected in the grand council, for the despatch of urgent or secret business; (C) the consuls, the executive, elected for one year, and compelled to report to the great council at the term of their office. The way in which the burghers used their liberty and powers, secured by the peace of Constance, in attacking the feudal nobility; how they compelled the nobles to come into the city and to abandon their castles for a certain portion of the year; how the war between the two classes was continued inside the city, resulting in the establishment of the podestà; and the nature and limits of this office,—all this has been explained in the article ITALY.

This bitter and well-balanced rivalry between the nobles and the people, and the endless danger to which it exposed the city owing to the fact that the nobles were always ready to claim the protec-

tion of their feudal chief, the emperor, brought to the front two noble families as protagonists of the contending factions,—the Torriani of Valassina, and the Visconti, who derived their name from the office they had held under the archbishops. After the battle of Cortenova, in 1237, where Frederick II. defeated the Guelph army of the Milanese and captured their carroccio, Pagano della Torre rallied and saved the remnants of the Milanese. This act recommended him to popular favour, and he was called to the government of the city,—but only for the distinct purpose of establishing the "catasta," a property tax which should fall with equal incidence on every citizen. This was a democratic measure which marked the party to which the Torriani belonged and rendered them hateful to the nobility. Pagano died in 1241. His nephew Martino followed as podestà in 1256, and in 1259 as signore of Milan,—the first time such a title was heard in Italy. The nobles, who had gathered round the Visconti, and who threatened to bring Ezzelino da Romano, the Ghibelline tyrant of Padua, into the city, were defeated by Martino, and nine hundred of their number were captured. Martino was followed by two other Torriani, Filippo his brother (1263-65) and Napoleone his cousin (1265-77), as lords of Milan. Napoleone obtained the title of imperial vicar from Rudolph of Hapsburg. But the nobles under the Visconti had been steadily gathering strength, and Napoleone was defeated at Desio in 1277. He ended his life in a wooden cage at Castel Baradello above Como.

Otho Visconti, archbishop of Milan (1262), the victor of Desio, became lord of Milan, and founded the house of Visconti, who ruled the city—except from 1302 to 1310—till 1447, giving twelve lords to Milan. Otho (1277-95), Matteo (1310-22), Galeazzo (1322-28), Azzo (1328-39), Lucchino (1339-49), and Giovanni (1349-54) followed in succession. Giovanni left the lordship to three nephews—Matteo, Galeazzo, and Bernabò. Matteo was killed (1355) by his brothers, who divided the Milanese, Bernabò reigning in Milan (1354-85) and Galeazzo in Pavia (1354-78). Galeazzo left a son, Gian Galeazzo, who became sole lord of Milan by seizing and imprisoning his uncle Bernabò. For an account of this most powerful prince see ITALY. It was under him that the cathedral of Milan and the Certosa of Pavia were begun. He was the first duke of Milan, having obtained that title from the emperor Wenceslaus. His sons Giovanni Maria, who reigned at Milan (1402-1412), and Filippo Maria, who reigned at Pavia (1402-1447), succeeded him. In 1412, on his brother's death, Filippo united the whole duchy under his sole rule, and attempted to carry out his father's policy of aggrandizement, but without success.

Filippo was the last male of the Visconti house. At his death a republic was proclaimed, which lasted only three years. In 1450 the general Francesco Sforza, who had married Filippo's only child Bianca Visconti, became duke of Milan by right of conquest if by any right. Under this duke the canal of the Martesana, which connects Milan with the Adda, and the Great Hospital were carried out. Francesco was followed by five of the Sforza family. His son Galeazzo Maria (1466-76) left a son, Gian Galeazzo, a minor, whose guardian and uncle Lodovico usurped the duchy (1479-1500). Lodovico was captured in 1500 by Louis XII. of France, and Milan remained for twelve years under the French crown. In the partial settlement which followed the battle of Ravenna, Massimiliano Sforza, a protégé of the emperor, was restored to the throne of Milan, and held it by the help of the Swiss till 1515, when Francis I. of France reconquered the Milanese by the battle of Marignano, and Massimiliano resigned the sovereignty for a revenue from France. This arrangement did not continue. Charles V. succeeded the emperor Maximilian, and at once disputed the possession of the Milanese with Francis. In 1522 the imperialists entered Milan and proclaimed Francesco Sforza (son of Lodovico). Francesco died in 1535, and with him ended the house of Sforza. From this date till the war of the Spanish succession (1714) Milan was a dependency of the Spanish crown. At the close of that war it was handed over to Austria; and under Austria it remained till the Napoleonic campaign of 1796. For the results of that campaign, and for the history of Italian progress towards independence, in which Milan played a prominent part by opening the revolution of 1848, the reader is referred to the article ITALY. The Lombard campaign of 1859, with the battles of Solferino and Magenta, finally made Milan a part of the kingdom of Italy.

**Literature.**—Pietro Verri, *Storia di Milano*; Corio, *Storia di Milano*; Canth, *Illustrazione Grande del Lombardo Veneto*; the Milanese chroniclers in Muratori's *Rer. Ital. Scriptores*; Sismondi, *Italian Republics*; Ferrari, *Storia di Milano*; Litta, *Famiglie celebri*, s.v. "Torriani," "Visconti," "Sforza," and "Trivulzio"; Muratori, *Annali d'Italia*; Hallam, *History of the Middle Ages*; and *Mediolanum*, 4 vols., 1881. Bonvicino da Riva gives a contemporary account of Milan in the 12th century. (H. F. B.)

**MILAZZO**, a city of Italy in the province of Messina in Sicily, 20½ miles west of Messina, is built on the eastern shore of the Bay of Milazzo, partly on the isthmus of the promontory, Capo Milazzo, which divides it from the Bay of Oliveri. It consists of an old or upper town protected by strong bastioned walls, and a lower or modern town

outside of the enceinte. The fine old castle is now used as a prison. Besides a certain amount of foreign commerce (37 vessels with a burden of 6707 tons entering in 1881, 93 with 13,496 in 1863), Milazzo carries on a good coasting trade (194,366 tons in 1881, 40,138 in 1861), and is one of the seats of the tunny-fishery. The communal population increased from 10,493 in 1861 to 13,565 in 1881, and that of the city was 7427 in 1871.

Milazzo is the ancient Myla, a seaport and fortress founded by the Zanclæans (Messanians), which gives its name to the battle of the Mylæan plain in which the Mamertines were defeated by Hiero in 270 B.C. In 1523 it was the scene of an unsuccessful conspiracy to transfer Sicily to the French. Captured by the Germans in 1718, it was besieged by the Spaniards, but relieved by a Neapolitan and English force. In July 1860 the defeat of the Neapolitans in the vicinity, and the seizure of the fortress, formed almost the crowning act of Garibaldi's victorious campaign. The Bay of Milazzo has been the scene of the defeat of the Carthaginian navy by Duilius (260 B.C.), of Pompeius by Octavian's general Agrippa (36 B.C.), and of the French and Messinian galleys by the Pisans (1268).

**MILDEW** (explained as "meal-dew" or, with more probability, as "honey-dew") is a popular name given to various minute fungi from their appearance, and from the sudden, dew-like manner of their occurrence. Like many other popular names of plants, it is used to denote different species which possess very small botanical affinity. The term is applied, not only to species belonging to various systematic groups, but also to such as follow different modes of life. The corn-mildew, the hop-mildew, and the vine-mildew are, for example, parasitic upon living plants, and the mildews of damp linen and of paper are saprophytes, that is, they subsist on matter which is already dead. It is generally possible to draw a distinct line between parasitic and saprophytic fungi; a species which attacks the living body of its host does not grow on dead matter, and *vice versa*. This is true so far as is known of perhaps all the higher fungi except *Saprolegnia ferax* (Grühth.), a parasite of freshwater fishes (especially of the salmon), which also grows freely on their dead bodies and on those of flies, &c. As regards mildews in general, the conditions of life and growth are mainly suitable nutrition and dampness accompanied by a high temperature. The life-history of the same species of mildew frequently covers two or more generations, and these are often passed on hosts of different kinds. In some cases again the same generation confines its attack to the same kind of host, while in others the same generation grows on various hosts. For information regarding fungi generally see FUNGUS, vol. ix. p. 827.

The following examples are of common occurrence.

**The Corn-Mildew** (*Puccinia graminis*, Pers., Order *Uredineæ*).—This disease of our grain crops and of many other grass plants is very widely distributed, like its hosts, over the earth, and is by far the most important to man of all mildews. Its life-history is passed in three generations—two of them on the grass plants and one on the barberry. In early spring the first generation is found on the dead leaves and leaf-sheaths of grass plants (in which the disease has hibernated), presenting to the naked eye the appearance of thin black streaks. When examined with a microscope these streaks are seen to consist of a great number of minute two-celled and thick-walled teleutospores (reproductive bodies), each situated at the end of a stalk (see A in fig. 2, vol. ix. p. 831). These have burst through the epidermis of the plant from their origin on threads among the tissues beneath. When they have been in contact with excessive moisture for a few hours, each of the spore-cells germinates by emitting a fine tube called a promycelium, on which there are borne small round thin-walled sporidia (reproductive bodies). The sporidia are easily detached and carried from place to place by the wind, and on alighting on the leaves of a barberry plant

soon germinate by pushing out a small tube which perforates the epidermis and thus gains access to the interior of the leaf, where it branches copiously, and forms a mass of thread-like tissue called mycelium. The germ-tubes of sporidia are unable to enter the leaves, *i.e.*, of grass plants. In from six to ten days this mycelium gives rise to flask-shaped bodies called spermoconia (vol. ix. p. 831, fig. 2 B, *sp.*), immediately under the surface of the leaf (usually the upper one), but breaking through it at the neck of the flask, out of which there protrudes a bunch of hairs. Within the flasks are formed at the end of stalks many exceedingly small oval bodies called spermatia, which escape through the neck. The function of these bodies has not yet been definitely made out, but that they bear a very striking resemblance to the male sexual organs of other fungi there can be no doubt. In the same leaves and on the same mycelium there arise several days later numerous basin-shaped bodies containing erect stalks, bearing at the apex a number of round ascospores (reproductive bodies) in vertical series (vol. ix. p. 831, fig. 2 B, *a*). These constitute the second generation. On their escape they germinate by emitting a tube which, if the host on which they fall be a grass plant, enters the leaf through one of the stomata in the epidermis, and there by branching forms a new mycelium. On this there soon appears, bursting through the epidermis, a new generation consisting of round or oval uredospores produced at the end of stalks (vol. ix. p. 831, fig. 2 C). The uredospores constantly reproduce this generation, and in such abundance that the grain crops are extensively ravaged by its attack. It is in this generation that the term mildew is popularly given to the fungus. Later in autumn on the same mycelium the two-celled teliospores appear, and these after hibernating renew in spring the life-history. This very remarkable cycle of generations was first traced by Professor de Bary.

The *Hop-Mildew* (*Sphaerotheca Castagnei*, Lev., Order *Erysiphaceae*) is a parasitic disease of the hop, though it is often to be found on many other plants, such as *Potentilla*, *Spiraea*, *Epilobium*, balsams, cucumbers, dandelions, plantains, &c. The thread-like mycelium appears on the young shoots and leaves of the hop in white spots, which gradually extend and finally unite. This mycelium bears many minute, round conceptacles (perithecia) which with their supporting threads are brown-coloured. Within each perithecium is found a somewhat oval body termed an ascus, containing eight ascospores (reproductive bodies).

The *Vine-Mildew* (*Erysiphe Tuckeri*, Berk., Order *Erysiphaceae*) is known only in one generation—called the oidium stage. Soon after the flowering of the vine the attack takes place on the young leaves, from which the thin white mycelium spreads rapidly to the older leaves and twigs, which it does not appear to affect so injuriously. The chief damage is done to the grapes while they are in a very immature condition. The mycelium which travels over the surface sends down at intervals into the tissues short irregular protuberances called haustoria, which perform for it the functions of roots. Above these rise from the mycelium short stalks bearing each a single oval spore at the apex. The disease spreads on the same plant not only by the extension of the mycelium but by the scattering and germination of the spores. Here no perithecia are known.

The *Paper-Mildew* (*Ascotricha chartarum*, Berk., Order *Erysiphaceae*) grows on damp paper, and therefore is saprophytic in its mode of life. It consists at first of a branching filamentous mycelium on which minute globular spores occur. Finally a round brown perithecium is formed among the threads which appear as radiating from it. Within the perithecium are numerous linear asci containing each a row of dark elliptical ascospores.

For the *Erysiphaceae* generally see FUNGUS, vol. ix. p. 833.

MILETUS, an ancient city on the southern shore of the Ægean Gulf opposite the mouth of the Mæander. Before the Ionic migration it was inhabited by the Carians (*Iliad* ii. 876; Herod. i. 146); other authorities call the original people Leleges, who are always hard to distinguish from Carians. The Greek settlers from Pylus under Neleus massacred all the men in the city, and built for themselves a new city on the coast. It occupied a very favourable situation at the mouth of the rich valley of the Mæander, and was the natural outlet for the trade

of southern Phrygia (Hipponax, *Fr.* 45); it had four harbours, one of considerable size. Its power extended inland for some distance up the valley of the Mæander, and along the coast to the south, where it founded the city of Iasus. The trade with the Black Sea, however, was the greatest source of wealth to the Ionian cities. Miletus like the rest turned its attention chiefly to the north, and after a time it succeeded in almost monopolizing the traffic. Along the Hellespont, the Propontis, and the Black Sea coasts it founded more than sixty cities—among them Abydus, Cyzicus, Sinope, Dioscurias, Panticapæum, and Olbia. All these cities were founded before the middle of the 7th century; and before 500 B.C. Miletus was decidedly the greatest Greek city. During the time when the enterprise and energy of the seafaring population, the *ἀναδρατα*, raised Miletus to such power and wealth, nothing is known of its internal history. The analogy of all Greek cities, and some casual statements in later writers, suggest that the usual bloody struggles took place between the oligarchy and the democracy, and that tyrants sometimes raised themselves to supreme power in the city; but no details are known. Miletus was equally distinguished at this early time as a seat of literature. The Ionian epic and lyric poetry indeed had its home farther north; philosophy and history were more akin to the practical race of Miletus, and Thales, Anaximander, Anaximenes, Hecataeus, all belonged to this city. The three Ionian cities of Caria—Miletus, Myus, and Priene—spoke a peculiar dialect of Ionic.<sup>1</sup>

When the Mermaid kings raised Lydia to be a great military kingdom, Miletus was their strongest adversary. War was carried on for many years, till Alyattes concluded a peace with Thrasybulus, tyrant of Miletus; the Milesians afterwards seem to have peaceably acknowledged the rule of Croesus. On the Persian conquest Miletus passed under a new master; it headed the revolt of 500 B.C., and was taken by storm after the battle of Lade. Darius treated it with peculiar severity, massacred most of the inhabitants, transported the rest to Ampe at the mouth of the Tigris, and gave up the city to the Carians. Henceforth the history of Miletus has no special interest; it revived indeed when the Persians were expelled from the coast in 479 B.C., and was a town of commercial importance throughout the Græco-Roman period, when it shared in the general fortunes of the Ionian cities under the rule of Athenians, Persians, Macedonians, Pergamenians, and Romans in succession. Its harbours, once protected by Lade and the other Tragusæan islands, were gradually silted up by the Mæander, and Lade is now a hill some miles from the coast. Ephesus took its place as the great Ionian harbour in the Hellenistic and Roman times. It was the seat of a Christian bishopric, but its decay was sure, and its site is now a marsh.

See Schroeder, *Comment. de Reb. Miles.*; Soldan, *Rer. Miles. Comment.*; Rayet, *Milet et le Golfe Latmique*; Head, "Early Electrum Coins," in *Namism. Chron.*, vol. xvi.

MILFORD, a seaport, market-town, and contributory parliamentary borough (one of the Pembroke district) of Pembrokeshire, South Wales, is finely situated on the north side of Milford Haven, about 8 miles west-north-west of Pembroke. The land-locked estuary of Milford Haven stretches about 10 miles inland, with a

<sup>1</sup> The coinage of Miletus during this early period is an important subject on account of the wide commercial connexions of the city. The early electrum coinage belongs to the Phœnician or Græco-Asiatic standard, which was introduced from Phœnicia and spread over many of the Ionian and Thracian cities through the influence of Milesian trade. Very archaic coins of Miletus, Ephesus, Cyme, and Sardis are known of this standard, and at a somewhat later date of Chios, Samos, Clazomenæ, Lampæcus, Abydus, and Cyzicus. The lion is the regular Milesian type, often with a star beside or above him.

breadth of from 1 to 2 miles. In most places it has a depth of from 15 to 19 fathoms, and, as it is completely sheltered by hills, vessels can ride in it at anchor in all kinds of weather. The royal dockyard, founded at Milford in 1790, was removed in 1811, and from that time trade has been in a languishing condition. The town possesses iron-works. The shipping trade is confined chiefly to coasting vessels, but with the completion of new docks, capable of receiving vessels of the largest tonnage, it is supposed that a considerable trade may be carried on with America. The population of the urban sanitary district in 1871 was 3252, and in 1881 it was 3813.

MILFORD, a post-village of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts, lies 34 miles south-west of Boston, at the junction of the Milford branch of the Boston and Albany Railroad with the Hopkinton, Milford, and Woonsocket Railroad. It is one of the principal seats of the boot manufacture in New England, and also produces large quantities of straw goods. The population was 9310 in 1880.

MILICZ, or MILITSCH, of Kremsier, Moravia, was the most influential among those preachers and writers in Moravia and Bohemia who during the 14th century paved the way for the reforming activity of Huss and through him for that of Luther. He was born about 1325, was already in holy orders in 1350, in 1360 was attached to the court of the emperor Charles IV., whom he accompanied into Germany in that year, and about the same time also held a canonry in the cathedral of Prague along with the dignity of archdeacon. About 1363 he resigned all his appointments that he might become a preacher pure and simple; he addressed scholars in Latin, and (an innovation) the laity in their native Czech, or in German, which he acquired for the purpose. The success of his labours in reclaiming the fallen made itself apparent in the reformation of a whole quarter of the city of Prague. As he dwelt more and more on ecclesiastical abuses and the corruption of the clergy, and viewed them in the light of Scripture, the conviction grew in his mind that the "abomination of desolation" was now seen in the temple of God, and that antichrist had come, and in 1367 he went to Rome (where Urban V. was expected from Avignon) to expound these views. He affixed to the gate of St Peter's a placard announcing his sermon, but before he could deliver it was thrown into prison by the Inquisition. Urban, however, on his arrival ordered his release, whereupon he returned to Prague, and from 1369 to 1372 preached daily in the Teyn Church there. In the latter year the clergy of the diocese complained of him to the papal court at Avignon, whither he was summoned in Lent 1374, and where he died before his case was decided. He was the author of a *Libellus de Antichristo*, written in prison at Rome, a series of *Postilles* and *Lectioes Quadragesimales* in Latin, and a similar series of *Postils* in Czech.

MILITARY FRONTIER (German, *Militärgrenze*; Slavonic, *Grunitsa*), a narrow strip of Austrian-Hungarian territory stretching along the borders of Turkey, which had for centuries a peculiar military organization, and from 1849 to 1873 constituted a crown-land. As a separate division of the monarchy it owed its existence to the necessity of maintaining during the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries a strong line of defence against the invasions of the Turks, and may be said to have had its origin with the establishment of the captaincy of Zengg by Matthias Corvinus and the introduction of Uskoks (fugitives from Turkey) into the Warasdin district by the emperor Ferdinand I. By the close of the 17th century there were three frontier "generalates"—Carlstadt, Warasdin, and Petrinia (the last also called the Banal). After the defeat of the Turkish power by Prince Eugene it was proposed to

abolish the military constitution of the frontier, but the change was successfully resisted by the inhabitants of the district; on the other hand, a new Slavonian frontier district was established in 1702, and Maria Theresa extended the organization to the march-lands of Transylvania (the Szekler frontier in 1764, the Wallachian in 1766).<sup>1</sup>

As a reward for the service it rendered the Government in the suppression of the Hungarian insurrection in 1848, the Military Frontier was erected in 1849 into a crown-land, with a total area of 15,182 square miles, and a population of 1,220,503. In 1851 the Transylvanian portion (1177 square miles) was incorporated with the rest of Transylvania, and in 1871 effect was given to the imperial decree of 1869 by which the districts of the Warasdin regiments (St George and the Cross) and the towns of Zengg, Belovar, Ivanič, &c., were "provincialized" or incorporated with the Croatian-Slavonian crown-land. In 1872 the Banat regiments followed suit, and in 1873 the old military organization was abolished in all the rest of the frontier. Not till 1881, however, were the Croatian-Slavonian march-lands completely merged in the kingdoms to which they naturally belonged.

The social aspect of the military frontier régime is interesting. A communal system of land tenure natural to the old Slavonians was artificially kept in existence. The mark or plot of ground assigned to the original family of settlers remained the property of the family as such, and could not be portioned out among the several members. In this way the house-community, all under the rule of the same house-father and house-mother (who were not necessarily man and wife, nor the oldest members of the community), and all living within the same palisade, sometimes came to number two or three hundred persons. The "family" dined in a common hall, and after dinner discussed and settled matters affecting the common weal. Every man possessing real property in the country, and capable of bearing arms, was liable to military service from his twentieth year. The house-communities are now beginning to avail themselves of the permissive partition laws, and strangers are free to come and acquire property in land. Watch-towers with wooden clappers and the beacons which flashed the alarm along the whole frontier in a few hours are still features in the landscape.

MILITARY LAW consists of the statutes, rules of procedure, royal warrants, and orders and regulations which prescribe and enforce the public obligations of the officers, soldiers, and others made subject to its provisions. Its essential purpose is the maintenance of discipline; but it also includes the administrative government of the military forces of the state, more especially in the matters of enlistment, service, and billeting. The term "martial law" sometimes applied to it is, as regards modern times at least, a misnomer. For martial law as it is now understood applies not only to military persons but to the civil community, and may be described generally as the abrogation of ordinary law and the substitution for it of military force uncontrolled save by what, in the discretion of the commanding general, may be considered the necessity of the case.

The military law of England in early times existed, like the forces to which it applied, in a period of war only.

<sup>1</sup> By 1848 the following had come to be the division of the Military Frontier:—(1) *The Carlstadt (Carlowitz), Warasdin, and Banat Generalates*: the Licca Regiment (headquarters at Gospič), the Ottochaz Regiment (Ottochaz), the Ogulin (Ogulin), the Sluin (Carlstadt), the Cross (Belovar), the St George's (Belovar), the 1st Banal (Glinas), the 2d Banal (Petrinia). (2) *The Slavonian Generalate*: the Gradiska Regiment (Neu Gradiska), the Brood Regiment (Vinkovec), the Peterwardin (Mitrovic), the Tchaikist Battalion (Titel). (3) *The Banat Generalate*: the German Banat Regiment (Pancsova), the Wallachian Banat (Karansebes), the Illyrian Banat (Weiskirchen). (4) *The Transylvanian Generalate*: the Szekler Regiment No. 14 (Csik Szorede), the Szekler Regiment No. 15 (Kesseli Vasarhely), the Wallachian No. 16 (Orlath), the Wallachian No. 17 (Naszod). Twelve towns, known as "military communities" had communal constitutions not unlike those of the free towns of Hungary—Carlopolo, Zengg, Petrinia, Kostanica, Belovar, Ivanič, Brood, Peterwardin, Carlowitz, Semlin, Pancsova, and Weiskirchen.