

Mississippi, at the falls of St Anthony, 14 miles by river above St Paul. The east side was first settled, under the name of St Anthony, which was incorporated as a city in 1860. The west side settlement, named Minneapolis, was incorporated as a city in 1867, and soon surpassed St Anthony in population. In 1872 the two cities were united under the name of Minneapolis. The chief industries are the manufacture of flour and of lumber, for which the falls supply abundant water-power. The Mississippi here flows over a limestone bed resting upon a friable white sandstone; hence erosion is rapid, and the river banks show that the falls have receded from a position at the mouth of the Minnesota river. In 1851 90 feet of the limestone gave way at once; and, as the rock bed extends but 1200 feet above the present site of the falls, the destruction of the water-power was threatened. This has been averted by the construction of an apron, or inclined plane, of timber, with heavy cribwork at the bottom, and the building of a concrete wall in the bed of sandstone behind the falls and underneath the channel of the river. For this work the United States Government appropriated \$550,000 and the citizens of Minneapolis contributed \$334,500. The city has twenty-seven flour-mills, which can produce 29,272 barrels a day. The total product for the year ended September 1, 1882, was 2,301,667 barrels. The shipments of lumber for 1880 were 164,620,000 feet. The population in 1870 was 18,079; and in 1880, 46,887.

**MINNESANGER.** See GERMANY, vol. x. p. 525.

**MINNESOTA**, one of the north-western States of the American Union, extending from 43° 30' N. lat. to the British Possessions (about 49° N. lat.), and from Wisconsin and Lake Superior on the east to Dakota on the west, between the meridians of 89° 39' and 97° 5' W. long. Its area, including half of the lakes, straits, and rivers along its boundaries, except Rainy Lake and Lake of the Woods, amounts to 83,365 square miles.

The surface of Minnesota is diversified by few elevations of any great height. In general it is an undulating plain, breaking in some sections into rolling prairie, and traversed by belts of timber. It has an average elevation above sea-level of about 1000 feet. The watershed of the north (which determines the course of the three great continental river systems) and that of the west are not ridges or hills, but elevations whose inclination is almost insensible. The southern and central portions of the State are chiefly rolling prairie, the upper part of which is crossed from N.W. to S.E. by the forest belt known as the Big Woods,—a stretch of deciduous forest trees with an area of about 5000 square miles. North of the 47th parallel, the great Minnesota pine belt reaches from Lake Superior to the confines of the Red River valley, including the region of the headwaters of the Mississippi and its upper tributaries, as well as those of the Superior streams. North of the pine region there is but a stunted growth of tamarack and dwarf pine. In the north-east are found the rugged elevations of the granite uplift of the shores of Lake Superior, rising to a considerable height; while in the north-west the surface slopes away to the level prairie reaches of the Red River valley. The surface elevation of the State varies from 800 to 2000 feet above sea-level. A short line of hills in the north-east reaches the latter altitude, while only the valleys of the Red River, the Mississippi, and the Minnesota fall below the former.

**Geology and Soil.**—The geology has not yet been mapped out with the precision attained in other States. The great central zone, from Lake Superior to the south-western extremity of the State, is occupied by granitic and metamorphic rocks, succeeded, in the south-east, by narrower bands of later formation. Within the great Azoic area lies the central watershed of the continent, from which the

St Lawrence system sends its waters towards the Atlantic, the Mississippi towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the Red River of the North to Hudson's Bay. These primordial rocks carry back the geologic history of Minnesota to pre-Silurian times. They form in the north-east, in the neighbourhood of Lake Superior, an extremely rough and hilly country, but as they reach the central and south-western portions of the State they for the most part disappear beneath the surface drift. This central belt is succeeded, on the south and east, by a stretch of sandstone, partially the true red Potsdam and partially a similar but lighter-coloured stratum, which some have proposed to designate the St Croix Sandstone. Isolated beds of sandstone are found in various parts of the State. The north-western corner, stretching east from the Red River valley, is believed to be Cretaceous; but the great depth of drift and alluvium, disturbed by no large rivers, prevents a positive conclusion. The Lower Magnesian limestone underlies the extreme south-eastern portion of the State, and extends along the west side of the Mississippi to a point a little below St Paul; thence it takes a course almost semicircular, and finally passes out of the State at the south-western boundary. The Trenton limestone occupies a large field in the south and south-east; it comes to the surface in long irregular bands, and an island of it underlies the cities of Minneapolis and St Paul with the adjacent districts. The Galena limestone, the Masquoketa shales, the Niagara limestone, and the rocks of the Devonian age in turn prevail in the other counties of the south and east; while the existence of the St Peter sandstone would scarcely be known but for its outcropping along the bluffs of the Mississippi, and at the famous waterfall of Minnehaha. From these various formations numerous kinds of stone valuable for building purposes are obtained. The grey granite of St Cloud is extremely hard and enduring. The Lower Magnesian furnishes two especially handsome building stones,—the pink limestone known as Kasota stone, and the cream-coloured stone of Red Wing, both easily worked, and hardening by exposure to atmospheric changes. Naturally, from its location underneath the principal cities of the State, the Trenton limestone is the most widely used. Sand suitable for glass-making, and argillaceous deposits abound. The clays which make up so large a portion of the surface drift of the State are almost wholly of glacial origin. Overlying the deposits of sand, gravel, boulders, and clay is, in most portions of the State, a sandy loam, very finely divided, rich in organic matter, deep brown or black in colour, and of the greatest fertility. It is this soil which has given to the State its reputation for productiveness. Its depth varies from 2 to 5 feet in various parts of the State, and it has been described by Dr Owen as "excellent in quality, rich as well in organic matter as in those mineral salts which give rapidity to the growth of plants, while it has that durability which enables it to sustain a long succession of crops."

**Rivers and Lakes.**—The State holds a unique place with reference to the great water systems of the continent. The Mississippi takes its rise in Lake Itasca, north of the centre of the State. Before it leaves the State limits it becomes a great river, half a mile wide, and from 5 to 20 feet deep. It drains with its tributaries all the southern and central portions and a large area of the northern part of the State. It is navigable as far as St Paul, and at Minneapolis the falls of St Anthony afford unrivalled facilities for manufacturing. Of the many affluents of the Mississippi the most important is the Minnesota, which after a course of about 440 miles flows into the main stream at Fort Snelling, 3 miles above St Paul. The source of the Minnesota is but 1 mile from Lake Traverse, the origin of the Red River of the North, and it is navigable during the high-water season for about 233 miles. Its principal tributaries are the Blue Earth, Chippewa, Redwood, Lac qui Parle, and Pomme de Terre. The Red River system drains the north-western part of the State, and its waters

finally pass into Hudson's Bay, as also do those from the country drained by streams flowing to the Rainy Lake river and the lakes along the northern boundary line. East of this lies the region tributary to Lake Superior and the St. Lawrence system. This comprises an area within the State estimated at 9000 square miles. Its principal river is the St. Louis. There are altogether about 2796 miles of navigable water in Minnesota.

The number of lakes is estimated at seven thousand. They are of all sizes, and are found chiefly in the northern two-thirds of the State. They have been classified geologically into glacial or drift lakes, fluviatile or river lakes, occupying basins on river courses, and lakes having rock basins either scooped out by the action of glaciers or formed by the relative position of different geological formations. By far the greater number give evidence of glacial action in their origin. They abound over the region most deeply covered by the surface drift, and are especially prevalent in moraine districts, forming the southern fringe of the lacustrine area of North America. With the melting of the ice-sheet which once overspread Minnesota, its innumerable lakes came into existence; and the gentle acclivity of its slopes, precluding rapid erosive action, has tended to give permanence to the depressions constituting their basins. The census returns give 4160 square miles of water surface within the State. Most of the lakes are exceedingly picturesque in their surroundings. Forests skirt their shores, which are seldom marshy; and their waters, abounding in various kinds of fish, are clear and cool. Besides the sanitary advantages afforded by the lakes, as supplying places for recreation and delightful summer resorts, they affect the climate to some extent, tempering the extremes commonly experienced in northern latitudes. The fact that many of the lakes are gradually drying up must be explained by agricultural operations. The largest lakes, exclusive of Superior, lying wholly or in part in Minnesota are as follows:—Lake of the Woods, 612 square miles; Red, 342; Mille Lacs, 198; Leech, 194; Rainy, 146; Winnibigoshish, 78; and Vermilion, 63.

**Flora and Fauna.**—The flora and fauna present no marked differences from those of other States in the same latitude. In a partial list of the birds of Minnesota, two hundred and eighty-one species are enumerated. Of winter birds fifty-two species have been classified, twenty-three of them being permanent residents.

**Climate.**—The State lies so far north as to have a low mean annual temperature, and so far inland as to have the characteristic continental climate. Its elevation above sea-level gives an agreeable rarefaction to the atmosphere, and makes the prevalence of fogs and damp weather unknown. Between June and January there is an annual variation from the summer heat of southern Ohio to the winter cold of Montreal. The winter, usually commencing in November, and continuing till near the end of March, is not a period of intense continued cold, but is subject to considerable variations. As a rule, the comparative dryness of the atmosphere neutralizes the severest effect of excessive cold. The snowfall is extremely light during most of the winter, but as spring approaches precipitation becomes greater, and there are frequently heavy snowfalls in February and March. The change from winter to summer is rapid, vegetation sometimes seeming to leap into full and active growth within the space of a few weeks. The summer months bring days of intense heat, but, with comparatively rare exceptions, the nights are deliciously cool. Hot days and cool nights make the ideal weather for a good wheat crop; and the forcing heats of summer produce in luxuriant growth the vegetable life which belongs to the middle States. The Smithsonian chart assigns to Minnesota an average temperature for the hottest week in summer of from 85° to 90°, and for the coldest week in winter from 10° to 20° below zero. The mean annual average, for all below 47° of latitude, it gives as 40°. Observations at St. Paul, extending over a period of more than thirty-five years, show the following mean temperatures:—spring, 45°-6; summer, 70°-6; autumn, 40°-9; winter, 16°-1; average, 44°-6. The average annual rainfall is about 25.5 inches. While this is not large, it is so distributed as best to subserve the purposes of vegetable growth. No moisture is lost in superfluous spring and autumn rains, or in the cold and non-producing part of the year, the precipitation, which in winter is less than 2 inches, increasing to about 12 for the summer. To the season of vegetable growth belong 70 per cent. of the yearly measures of heat, 76 per cent. of the rainfall, and 76 per cent. of the atmospheric humidity. The prevailing winds are from the south or south-east. In 1880 rain or snow fell on 150 days, and in 1881 on 167. It is evident that the causes which mitigate the actual severity of the climate as felt, which produce so large a number of clear days, and which forbid the continued presence of a large amount of moisture in the atmosphere, are those which render a climate healthful in the highest degree. Minnesota has been for many years a favourite resort for invalids. The curative properties of its climate are especially marked in the case of pulmonary complaints.

**Agriculture.**—The leading industry of the State is agriculture. The character of the surface soil varies in different parts of the State with the character of the underlying strata. The fertile land comprises about three-fourths of the entire area of the State. The

drift soil proper of the south and centre, including the Minnesota valley and the greater part of that of the Mississippi, contains silica and calcareous matter, and is interspersed with alluvial river bottoms. The limestone soil, in which there is a large calcareous element, lies chiefly on the western slope of the Mississippi. The Red River valley consists of an argillaceous mould, rich in organic deposits. Around Lake Superior, wherever arable land is to be found, it is marked by a rich trap soil. North of the central fertile area, and in the neighbourhood of the sources of the Mississippi, is much swampy land, susceptible of easy drainage, with a large tract of sand and other drift detritus, unfavourable to production. Maize and potatoes flourish, and the uplands, which support hardwood ridges, are suited to general agriculture. To the extreme north the surface, while indicating mineral wealth, is utterly unfit, except in occasional isolated areas, for purposes of tillage.

Wheat has hitherto been the staple product of the State. Soil and climate are such as to ensure a large average yield, while the superior quality of the grain has given it a wide reputation. The other cereals are also cultivated with success. The tendency to diversify agriculture, especially in the southern part of the State, has been stimulated by several partial failures of the wheat crop, the locust invasions, and the competition of the farther north-west.

The area of the State includes 39,791,265 acres surveyed, 10,968,575 acres not surveyed, and 2,700,000 acres of lake surface. The total sales of public and railroad lands in 1879 and 1880 were not far from 4,000,000 acres. It is estimated that the aggregate of lands yet undisposed of, three-fourths of which may be profitably cultivated, is nearly 20,000,000 acres, exclusive of the lands belonging to the State. White Earth Indian reservation has thirty-six townships of prairie and timber land; and Red Lake reservation contains 3,200,000 acres.

**Forestry.**—A special census bulletin estimates the amount of merchantable white pine standing, May 31, 1880, as amounting in all to 6,100,000,000 feet. The entire cut for the census year 1880 was 540,997,000 feet. Of hardwood forest 3,840,000 acres remain, capable of yielding 57,600,000 cords of wood.

Every encouragement is afforded, both by the railway corporations and the State, to tree-planting on the prairies. A quarter section is given to any one who will plant and keep in good condition 40 acres of timber for eight years. In 1880 there were planted 25,331 acres of trees, exclusive of those bordering highways and the windbreaks along the railroad lines.

**Manufactures.**—The manufactures of Minnesota are yet in their infancy. The abundant water-power of the State, its proximity to the coal-fields of Iowa, its superior transportation facilities, and the large demand for manufactured commodities are, however, rapidly developing this branch of industry. The most important industries are the manufacture of flour and that of lumber. The former naturally established itself in a State of immense wheat yield and abundant water-power. It received its greatest stimulus from the invention and adoption of the middlings purifying process, which produces the highest grade of flour, and to which the hard spring wheat of Minnesota is especially adapted. Among other manufacturing industries actively prosecuted are the making of brick, pottery, stoneware, and agricultural implements, and also meat-packing.

**Commerce.**—The geographical position of Minnesota gives it extensive commercial interests. Two continental waterways terminate within the State. The Mississippi affords continuous navigation to European ports during eight months of the year. From Duluth numerous lines of vessels traverse the chain of great lakes, and transport the products of the west to the eastern seaboard. Three great transcontinental railway lines are connected more or less directly with the railroad system of the State. Twelve lines of railway from every part of Minnesota converge at the contiguous cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis, and three great trunk lines from these centres to Chicago secure the advantages of a lively competition.

**Education.**—The common school system is supported by land grants, a local tax, and a State tax. The superintendent of instruction is appointed by the governor. County superintendents are chosen by popular vote. Common school districts have boards of three trustees each. Six directors are appointed for independent districts. The permanent fund in 1881 was \$4,850,000, and the current fund \$260,835. The State university, located at Minneapolis, is governed by a board of regents, consisting of the governor of the State, the superintendent of public instruction, the president of the university, and six others; both sexes are admitted, and tuition is free. The State supports three normal schools. Forty-two academies and six colleges are sustained by denominational or private enterprise.

**Administration.**—The departments of Government are, as in all the States, the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The State contains seventy-eight counties, of which some are still subject to change of boundary. From these are elected by districts forty-seven senators and one hundred and three members of the House of Representatives. The State officers are a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, treasurer, and attorney-general, all elected by the people. The term of office is two years.

The governor has power to veto separate items of a money bill. The judiciary is elective, and the term of office seven years. The State requirements for citizenship are residence in the United States one year, in the State four months, and in the election district ten days preceding an election. Women are allowed to vote for school officers and upon questions relating to the management of schools, and are also eligible to such offices. No county can contain more than 400 square miles. The legislature meets biennially. Extra sessions may be called, but no session can exceed sixty days in length. Under the last apportionment the State is entitled to five representatives in the national Congress.

The annual valuation of property for 1882, as equalized by the State board, gives the personal property as \$79,219,445, the real estate \$242,938,170. This represents a total actual value of not far from \$750,000,000.

While Minnesota was still a Territory, but after it had adopted a State constitution, an amendment was added to the constitution authorizing the issue of a large amount of bonds in aid of railway construction. Shortly afterwards, the companies having failed to fulfil their contracts and defaulted payment, the State foreclosed its mortgage on the lands, franchises, &c., of the roads, and turned them over to other companies. By another amendment to the constitution, the payment of the bonds was made contingent upon the result of a popular vote. Several proposals having failed to receive this sanction, the necessity for it was removed in 1881 by a decision of the supreme court, declaring the amendment unconstitutional. The legislature immediately met, accepted a plan of settlement proposed by the bondholders themselves, and over \$4,000,000 worth of new bonds were issued in exchange for the old. For the payment of the principal and interest of these the people have voted (November 1882) to set aside as a sinking fund the proceeds of 500,000 acres of land belonging to the State internal improvement fund, the deficit to be paid out of the tax on railroad earnings. These bonds include all the State debt except about \$200,000. A tax of 3 per cent. imposed on the gross earnings of all railroads within the State will soon meet all expenses except provision for educational, penal, and charitable institutions.

**Population.**—The population of the State was 6077 at the census of 1850, 172,023 in 1860, 439,706 in 1870, and 780,773 (419,149 males and 361,624 females) in 1880. According to the last census 299,800 whites had been born in the State; and of the 267,676 foreign-born inhabitants of the State 107,770 came from Scandinavian countries and 68,277 from the United Kingdom and the British colonies, while 77,505 acknowledge the German as their native tongue. The increase of population in the State for the last decade of years alone was 75 per cent. The most important cities are St. Paul, the capital, and Minneapolis, with 41,473 and 46,887 inhabitants respectively in 1880; Winona had 10,208 and Stillwater 9055.

**History.**—Missionary efforts and the trading spirit first induced white men to venture as far into the unexplored north-west as the boundaries of what is now the State of Minnesota. The earliest accounts of its natural features and native tribes appear in the Jesuit writings. The "Relations" of 1670-71 allude to the Sioux or Dakotas. In 1678 a company was formed for trading with this tribe. Du Luth was leader of this expedition, and later on went from Lake Superior to the Mississippi by canoe. But the first published account is that of Louis Hennepin, a Recollet monk, who, in 1680, visited the falls of St. Anthony, and gave them their name, from that of his patron saint. For a century the only visitants of the wild region were a few missionaries, and a number of fur traders who found the profit of the journey to more than counterbalance its perils and hardships. To the latter class belong Perrot, who reached the Mississippi by way of the Fox and Wisconsin in 1684, and founded at Lake Pepin the first trading post in the State, and Le Sueur, a Canadian, who ascended the great river from its mouth, and established another post above Lake Pepin. Captain John Carver, the explorer of the country of the upper Mississippi, visited the falls of St. Anthony in 1766, being the first British traveller who reached the spot. On March 20, 1804, Upper Louisiana was organized, consisting of Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and a large portion of Minnesota. From this time onwards the progress of exploration was rapid, and settlement followed in its train. The first really extensive exploration of any large part of what is now Minnesota was made between 1817 and 1823, by Major S. H. Long, of the United States engineer corps, in command of a Government expedition. About the same time the Red River received its first visitant. Thomas Douglas, earl of Selkirk, an Englishman of eccentric character, went, in 1817, to what is now Winnipeg, by way of York river. Having been struck with the agricultural possibilities of the region about the Red River of the North, he induced a colony of Swiss farmers to settle there. These were disappointed in the country, and unused to the severity of the climate, so that they finally removed to the vicinity of St. Paul and contributed to the earliest development of the agricultural industry of the State. In 1821 Colonel Snelling built, at the junction of the Minnesota and Mississippi rivers, a stronghold which he named Fort St. Anthony. The name was changed to Fort

Snelling in his honour, in 1824, and the fort is still an important post as a base of supplies for the newer north-west. The first steamboat made its appearance at the head of navigation in 1823. The settlement of St. Paul, one of the oldest towns as well as the capital, is commonly dated from 1846, at which time there were a few shanties on its site. Population now began to arrive in constantly increasing numbers, and on March 3, 1849, a bill passed Congress for organizing the Territory. It was proposed at one time to name it Itasca, but the name Minnesota, meaning, "sky-tinted water," and originally applied to the river bearing that title, was finally retained. The western boundary of the territory was fixed at the Missouri river. The population was but 4057, the largest town had but a few hundred inhabitants, and a large part of the soil of the State still belonged to the Indians. But progress now began in earnest. A constitution was adopted in 1857, and on May 11, 1858, Minnesota was admitted as a State, with a population, according to the last Territorial census, of 150,037.

One of the first acts of the new State was the issue of the railroad bonds noticed above. Soon after came the civil war. Within two months of Lincoln's first call for troops the first Minnesota regiment, over one thousand strong, was mustered into service. By August of 1862 ten regiments had been called for and furnished. In all, the States supplied to the armies of the Union 25,052 men, or about one-seventh of its entire population at the outbreak of the war.

In the meantime there occurred, in 1862, the horrible outbreak known as the Sioux massacre. Settlements were cut off, isolated settlers murdered, and even a strong post like Fort Ridgely was attacked. The outbreak spread over a large portion of the State; several severe engagements were fought; and it was not until the State had a thoroughly equipped military force ready for the campaign that the Indians began to flee or to give themselves up. By this time over 700 persons had been murdered, 200, chiefly women, taken captive; eighteen counties were ravaged, and 30,000 people were homeless. The property loss was not less than \$3,000,000.

During these local and national disturbances the material prosperity of the State was unabated. Notwithstanding the heavy cost of the civil war and the Sioux massacre, the census of 1865 showed a population of 250,099. Railroad construction began to be energetically carried forward; in 1870 329 miles were made and 101.6 miles were in operation; a road to Lake Superior was completed, and the Northern Pacific was fairly under way. In 1873-76, and to some extent in 1877, successive visitations of locusts destroyed the crops of the south-western counties. The sufferers were relieved by the State, and no repetition of the scourge has since been experienced. (J. S. P.)

**MINNOW** (*Leuciscus phoxinus* or *Phoxinus phoxinus*) is the smallest British Cyprinoid, readily distinguished by its very small scales. It is abundant in rivers, brooks, and lakes, always swimming in schools, and shifting its ground in search of food, which consists of every kind of vegetable and animal substance. It ranges from southern Europe to Scandinavia, and from Ireland into north-eastern Asia; in the Alps it attains to a higher altitude than any other Cyprinoid, viz., to nearly 8000 feet. Its usual size varies between 2 and 3 inches; but in suitable localities, especially in Germany, it is known to reach a length of from 4 to 5 inches. The colours vary with age and season; a series of dark spots or cross-bands along the sides is always present, but the males assume in summer a nuptial dress of scarlet or purple on the lower parts of the head and body. The minnow is used as bait; it can also be introduced with facility and with great advantage into ponds in which there is otherwise a scarcity of food for more valuable fishes, such as trout, perch, and pike.

**MINO DI GIOVANNI** (1431-1486), called **DA FIESOLE**, was born at Poppi in the Casentino in 1431. He had property at Fiesole, whence his usual name. Vasari's account of him is very inaccurate and full of contradictions. Mino was a friend and fellow-worker both with D. da Settignano and Matteo Civitate, all three being about the same age. There is considerable similarity in their works, showing mutual influence. Mino's sculpture is remarkable for its gem-like finish and extreme delicacy of detail, as well as for its spirituality and strong devotional feeling. No other sculptor portrayed the virginal purity of the Madonna or the soft infant beauty of the Divine Child with greater tenderness and refinement. Of Mino's earlier works, the finest are in the duomo of Fiesole, the altar-piece

and tomb of Bishop Salutati, executed about 1464. In the Badia of Florence are some of Mino's most important sculptures—an altarpiece, and the tombs of Bernardo Giugni, 1466, and the Margrave Hugo, 1481—all sculptured in white marble, with beautiful life-sized recumbent effigies and attendant angels. The pulpit in Prato cathedral, finished in 1473, is very delicately sculptured, with bas-reliefs of great minuteness, but somewhat weakly designed. Soon after the completion of this work Mino paid a visit of some years to Rome, where he executed several fine pieces of sculpture, such as the tomb of Pope Paul II. (now in the crypt of St Peter's), the tomb of Francesco Tornabuoni in S. Maria Sopra Minerva, and a beautiful little marble tabernacle for the holy oils in S. Maria in Trastevere. There can be little doubt that he was also the sculptor of several of the very lovely monuments in S. Maria del Popolo, especially those in the sacristy of Bishop Gomièl and Archbishop Rocca, 1482, and the marble reposed, also in the sacristy, given by Pope Alexander VI. Some of Mino's portrait busts and delicate profile bas-reliefs are preserved in the Bargello at Florence; they are full of life and expression, though without the extreme realism of Verrocchio and other sculptors of his time. He died in 1486.

See Vasari, Milanesi's ed., 1878-82; Perkins, *Italian Sculptors*; Winckelmann and D'Agincourt, *Storia della Scultura*. 1813.

MINOR. See INFANT.

MINORCA. See BALEARIC ISLANDS.

MINORITES. See FRANCISCANS.

MINOS, a legendary king of Crete, in whom both historical and religious elements are united. The historical element lies in the fact that an early civilization and maritime power had its seat in Crete. The Phœnician intercourse played a great part in developing this island state, and Minos is sometimes called a Phœnician. The name Minos is often found where Phœnician influence was strongest, e.g., at Megara. The laws and constitution which existed from a very early time in Crete were attributed to Minos, to whom they were revealed by Zeus. After his death he became the judge of the dead; he is one of the forms assumed by the old conception of the first man, who is after death king and god among the dead. It is therefore highly probable that the name Minos is the Greek form of the original *Manwa*, i.e., "endowed with thinking," which is seen in the Hindu Manu and the Germanic Mann. As in all other heroized forms of the god of the dead, there is both a terrible and a wise and beneficent side in the character of Minos. Cretan legends described him as the wild huntsman of the forests and mountains, the lover of the nymphs, though his love means death to them. His death is localized in the far west, in the land of sunset; his grave was shown at Camicus near Agrigentum, attached to a temple of Aphrodite. He pursued Dædalus thither, and the daughters of Cocalus, the king of Agrigentum, killed him by pouring boiling water over him in the bath, an obvious myth of the sun dying in the sea. Minos, the god of the dead, is, according to the usual rule, the sun-god, who goes to illumine the dead when he dies on the earth. His wife is Pasiphaë, the moon-goddess, who had an oracle by dreams at Thalamæ in Laconia. The union of the sun and the moon, the bull and the cow, gave rise to many quaint and ugly legends: Pasiphaë loved the bull of Minos, was aided by the stratagem of Dædalus, and gave birth to the Minotaur, half bull and half man. The Minotaur is one of those monstrous forms which were suggested to the Greek fancy by the quaint animals common in Oriental art. It was shut up in the LABYRINTH (*q.v.*), which was constructed by the skilled artist Dædalus. Now a son of Minos named Androgeus had been killed by the Athenians, and Minos as a punishment required that seven Athenian

youths and seven maidens should be sent every ninth year and given up to the Minotaur to be devoured. When this sacrifice took place for the third time Theseus came as one of the hostages, and slew the Minotaur with the help of Ariadne. Throughout these legends we see the close relation of Minos to the Phœnician sun-god Melkarth, and perceive the way in which different places where Phœnician influence can be traced, Athens, Sicily, &c., are brought together in religious myths.

MINOTAUR. See MINOS.

MINSK, a western government of Russia, is bounded by Vilna, Vitebsk, and Moghileff on the N. and E., and by Tchernigoff, Kieff, Volhynia, and Grodno on the S. and W., and has an area of 35,175 square miles. The surface is undulating and hilly in the north-west, where a narrow plateau and a range of hills of the Tertiary formation runs to the north-east, separating the basin of the Niemen, which flows into the Baltic, from that of the Dnieper, which sends its waters into the Black Sea. The range, which averages from 800 to 1000 feet, culminates in Lysaya Gora (1129 feet). The remainder of the province is flat, 450 to 650 feet above the sea-level, covered with sands and clays of the glacial and post-glacial periods. Two broad shallow depressions, drained by the Berezina and the Pripet, cross the province from north to south and from west to east; and these, as well as the triangular space between them, are covered with immense marshes (often occupying 200 to 600 square miles), numberless ponds and small lakes, peat-bogs, downs, and moving sands, as well as with dense forests. This country, and especially its south-western part, is usually known under the name of Polyésie ("The Woods"). Altogether, marshes take up 15 per cent. and marshy forests no less than 55 per cent. of the entire area of the province (60 to 71 per cent. in several districts). The forests, however, consist of full-grown trees in the higher districts of the north-west only, those which occupy the marshy ground consisting of small and stunted pine, birch, and aspen. The climate of the Polyésie is harsh and extremely unhealthy; malaria is an endemic disease of the bulbs of the hair (*koltun*, *pluca Polonica*) are the plagues of these tracts, the evil being intensified by the dreadful poverty of the population. Communication is very difficult. The railway from Poland to Moscow has, so far as Minsk is concerned, taken advantage of the plateau above mentioned; but still it has to cross the broad marshy depression of the Berezina. A successful attempt was recently made to drain the marshes of the Polyésie by a system of canals, and more than 4,500,000 acres have thus been rendered suitable for pasture and agriculture. Two great tributaries of the Dnieper, the Berezina and the Pripet, both navigable, with numberless subtributaries, many of which are also navigable, are the natural outlets for the marshes of the province. The Dnieper flows along its south-eastern border for 160 miles, and the Niemen on the north-western for 130 miles. The affluents of the Baltic, the Duna (Dwina), and the Vistula are connected by three canals with tributaries of the Dnieper. The population of the province (1,183,200 in 1873) may be estimated at about 1,350,000, mostly White Russians (67 per cent.); there are also Poles (about 11 per cent.), especially in the western districts, Jews (more than 10 per cent.), Little Russians (5 per cent.), and Russians (2 per cent.). About 70,000 are considered to be Lithuanians; there are also 4000 Tartars, whose presence can be traced to the raids of their ancestors on Lithuania in the 13th century, and about 2000 German agriculturists who settled in last century.

The chief occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture, which is, however, very unproductive in the lowlands; in the Polyésie the peasants rarely have pure bread to eat. Only 23·8 per cent. of the

area is under crops, the average yield being 1,600,000 quarters of corn and 1,170,000 quarters of potatoes. Cattle-breeding is very imperfectly developed, the meadows being marshy throughout the lowlands. Hunting and bee-keeping are sources of income in the Polyésie, and fishing gives occupation to about twenty thousand persons. The chief source of income for the inhabitants of the lowlands is the timber trade. Timber is floated down the rivers, and tar, pitch, various products of bark, potash, charcoal, and numerous sorts of timber-ware (wooden dishes, &c.) are manufactured in villages to a great extent; and shipbuilding is carried on along the Dnieper, Pripet, and Niemen. Shipping is also an important source of income, owing to the traffic on the canals and rivers of the province. In 1877 560 boats and 1120 rafts with 170,000 cwts. of cargo left the banks of the Berezina and Pripet; and the traffic on the Dnieper and Niemen was nearly as great. The industrial arts are almost entirely undeveloped. There are, however, several distilleries and tanneries; and woollen-stuffs, candles, tobacco, and sugar are manufactured to a limited extent. Corn is exported from the western districts, but imported to the same amount into the southern parts; the chief export trade is in produce of forest industries. The province is crossed by two important railways, one of which connects Poland with Moscow, and the other Libau and Vilna with the provinces of Little Russia; the great highway from Warsaw to Moscow crosses the province in the south, and its passage through the Berezina is protected by the first-class fortress of Bobruisk. Minsk is divided into nine districts, of which the capitals are—Minsk (43,500 inhabitants), Bobruisk (26,850), Borisoff (5650), close by the place where Napoleon I. crossed the Berezina on his retreat from Moscow, Igumen (2200), Mozyr (4200), Novogrodek (9000), Pinsk (18,000), Rychitsa (4800), and Slutsk (17,200). The province is well provided with secondary schools, but primary education, especially in the Polyésie, is in a very backward state.

The country now occupied by the province of Minsk was, as far as historical records extend, an abode of Slavonians. That portion of it which was occupied by the Krivichi became part of the Polotsk principality and so of "White Russia"; the other portion, occupied by the Dregovichi and Drevlans, became part of the "Black Russia"; whilst the south-western portion of it was occupied by Yatvyags or Lithuanians. During the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries it was divided among several principalities, which were incorporated with the great principality of Lithuania, and later were annexed to Poland. Russia took possession of this country in 1793. In 1812 it was invaded by the army of Napoleon I.

MINSK, the capital of the above province, is situated on the Svisloch, a tributary of the Berezina, at the junction of the Moscow and Warsaw and the Libau and Kharkoff railways, 465 miles by rail west from Moscow. It has 43,500 inhabitants, of whom one-third are Jews of the poorest class; the others are White Russians, Poles, and Tartars (about 700). The manufactures are few and insignificant. Since the introduction of railways the commercial importance of the place, which formerly was slight, has begun to increase.

Minsk is mentioned in Russian annals in the 11th century under the name of Myen'sk or Menesk. In 1066 and 1096 it was devastated, first by Izyaslav and afterwards by Vladimir. It changed rulers many times until the 13th century, when it became a Lithuanian fief. In the 15th century it became part of Poland, but as late as 1505 it was ravaged by Tartars, and in 1508 by Russians. In the 18th century it was taken several times by Swedes and Russians. Russia annexed it in 1793. Napoleon I. took it in 1812.

MINSTREL. The "minstrels," according to Bishop Percy, "were an order of men in the Middle Ages who united the arts of poetry and music, and sang verses to the harp of their own composing, who appear to have accompanied their songs with mimicry and action, and to have practised such various means of diverting as were much admired in those rude times, and supplied the want of more refined entertainments." This conception of the "minstrel" has been generally accepted in England ever since Percy published his *Reliques of Ancient Poetry*, which he gave to the world as the products of the genius of these anonymous popular poets and harpers. The name has been fixed in the language by the usage of romantic poets and novelists; Scott's "last minstrel" and Moore's "minstrel boy" were minstrels in Percy's sense of the word. The imagination was fascinated by this romantic figure, and the laborious and soured antiquary Ritson argued in vain that nobody before Bishop Percy had ever applied the word minstrel to such an order of men, that no such order of men ever did

exist in mediæval England, and that the historical English "minstrels," so-called, were a much less gifted and respectable class, being really instrumental musicians, either retainers or strollers.

The dispute between Ritson and Percy was partly a dispute about a word, and partly a dispute about historical facts; and there can be little doubt that Ritson was substantially right in both respects. The romantic bishop transferred to the mediæval English minstrel the social status and brilliant gifts of the Anglo-Saxon *gleeman* or *scóp*, and the French *troubadour* in the flourishing period of Provençal poetry. That the gleemen sang to the harp verses of their own composing, that some of them travelled from court to court as honoured guests, while others were important attached court officials, and all received costly presents, is a well attested historical fact. The household bard at Heorot in the poem of *Beowulf*, a man who bore many things in mind and found skilfully linked words to express them, was one of King Hrothgar's thanes; the gleeman of the *Traveller's Song* had visited all the tribal chiefs of Europe, and received many precious gifts, rings and bracelets of gold. The incidents in these poems may not be historic, but they furnish indubitable testimony to the social position of the gleeman in those days; a successful gleeman was as much honoured as a modern poet-laureate, and as richly rewarded as a fashionable *prima donna*. Further, the strolling gleeman of a humbler class seems to have been respected as a non-combatant; this much we may infer from the stories about Alfred and Anlaff having penetrated an enemy's camp in the disguise of gleemen, whether these stories are true or not, for otherwise they would not have been invented. The position of poets and singers in Provence from the 11th to the 13th century is still clearer. The classification of them by King Alphonso of Castile in 1273, by which time honourable designations were getting mixed, may help to determine the exact position of the English "minstrel." There was first the lowest class, the *bufos*, who strolled among the common people, singing ribald songs, playing on instruments, showing feats of skill and strength, exhibiting learned dogs and goats, and so forth; then the *joglers* or *joculatores*, who played, sang, recited, conjured, men of versatile powers of entertainment, who performed at the houses of the nobility, and were liberally remunerated; then the *trobadors*, or *inventores*, whose distinction it was to compose verses, whether or not they had sufficient executive faculty to sing or recite them.

If we compare these distinctions with Percy's definition of the minstrel, we see that his minstrel would have corresponded with the *joglar*, who also wrote his own songs and recitations. Now in the palmy days of Provençal song there were many professional joglars, such as Arnaut Daniel or Perdigo, who stood high among the most brilliant troubadours, and visited on terms of social equality with nobles and princes. But long before English became the court language the fashion had disappeared, and a new division of functions had been developed. In Chaucer's time the poet of society no longer sang his verses to harp or fiddle, or amused his patrons with feats of legerdemain; the king's *gestour* (teller of *gestes*) discharged the professional duty of amusing with witty stories; and the social position of the *joglar* had very much sunk. Ritson was perfectly right in saying that no English poet of any social position was a professional reciter to the harp of verses of his own composing. The Provençal joglar, travelling from court to court, combined our modern functions of poet, society journalist, entertainer, and musician. But about the time when the word "minstrel" came to be applied to him the English joglar was rapidly sinking or had already sunk to the social position of the modern strolling mountebank, travelling showman, or music-hall singer. And the