

being decided at present. The immediate introduction of a universal gold currency is by the admission of all parties eminently undesirable, and this is the only settled point in the controversy. (3) The last head which the bimetallic question embraces is the practical expediency of joining in a bimetallic league with a ratio of 1 to 15½. With regard to this aspect of the question the answer, for England at least, ought to be a negative one. The present English monetary system has worked well. It is firmly rooted in English habits, and is not therefore to be lightly abandoned. Again, the interests of English creditors are plainly opposed to any movement calculated to raise the value of silver relatively to gold, and to depreciate prices in general. The threat of some bimetallics, that all nations will be driven to adopt a gold standard, and thus produce a crisis in the English money market by the resulting gold drain, is of no weight; any drain of English gold will have to be paid for at a high price, and the simple expedient of raising the bank-rate will restore as much bullion as is needed in England. The interests of other countries cannot be so clearly determined. A state like Germany, holding a large store of depreciated silver, may desire other states to become bimetallic, but will hardly desire to do so herself. The interests of India and other silver-standard countries have been considered before. When all these aspects of the question have been examined the most probable conclusion is, that the chances of a bimetallic league in the immediate future are very small, and that future monetary evolution will be ruled rather by the course of events, and the pressure of circumstances in each separate state, than by the conscious deliberations of an international conference.

Bibliography.—The literature of the various questions connected with money is very extensive, and only a brief notice of it can be given here. The principal authority among the Greeks is Aristotle, who in two passages (*Nic. Eth.*, v. 5; *Pol.*, i. 9) has discussed the qualities of money, and pointed out its functions with great clearness. Xenophon also, in his work *On the Athenian State*, dealt with the value of the precious metals, though his views are partially erroneous. The only passages worth noticing in Latin literature are those of Pliny, who seems to have held a form of the mercantile theory, and Paulus, who, in a fragment preserved in the *Digest*, has treated of the origin of money. The mediæval literature embraces several works dealing specially with the question of changes in the standard of money, which were condemned by the theologians. The first treatise professedly on the special subject of money is a work by Nicholas Oresme, bishop of Lisieux (ob. 1382), entitled *De Origine, Natura, Jure, et Mutationibus Monetarum*, reprinted in 1864 (Paris) by Wolowski, and even now worth reading. The next work to be noticed is the *De Monetariis Potestatibus simul et Utilitate libellus* (Nuremberg, 1542), a fragment or a larger treatise on economics, of Gabriel Biel (ob. 1495). It has been remarked that "the favourite subject of the economists of the 16th century was that of money." The first of these works to be noticed is *De Monetis Cudenâ Ratione* by Copernicus, reprinted along with the work of Oresme above mentioned. At a later date the Jesuit Mariana discussed the variations in prices under the title *De Monetis Mutatione*. In the same century an anonymous work appeared in German, with the title *Gemeine Stimmen von der Muntze* (1630). In 1588 Davanzati issued *Lezione delle Monete*, advocating a bimetallic system. The problem of the elevation of prices caused by the American mines led to the issue of several works, one of the most remarkable being the *Dialogues* of William Stafford (1581).

In the 17th century Sir W. Petty dealt with money in a tract,

MONFERRATO, or **MONTERRAT**, an ancient marquisate of North Italy, in the valley of the Tanaro, the name of which still survives in the full title (Casale Monferrato) of the town of Casale. The princes of Monferrato were among the most powerful Italian families of the Middle Ages. Among them were several famous crusaders: Conrad, prince of Tyre from 1187 to 1192, the valiant opponent of Saladin; and Boniface, king of Thessalonica from 1183 to 1207. In 1305, on the extinction of the male line, the marquisate passed to Theodore Paleologus through his mother, the empress Irene. The Paleologi became extinct in 1533. The duchy was subsequently attached to Mantua, and ultimately absorbed in Savoy in the beginning of last century.

MONGE, GASPARD (1746-1818), French mathematician, the inventor of descriptive geometry, was born at Beaune on the 10th May 1746. He was educated first at the college of the Oratorians at Beaune, and then in their college at Lyons,—where, at sixteen, the year after he had

Quantulumcumque (1682). The recoinage of 1696 called forth Lowndes's *Essay for the Amendment of the Silver Coins*, and Locke's *Further Considerations concerning raising the Value of Money*. In the 18th century the *Reports* of Sir I. Newton, as Master of the Mint, are valuable. Cantillon's *Essai* (Paris, 1755) contains in its 2d and 3d parts a sound account of currency. Harris's *Essay on Money and Coins* (1757) is also useful. An earlier tract by Rice Vaughan, *Discourse of Coin and Coinage* (1675), is brief, but correct in principle. Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (London, 1776) discusses the subject of money in B. i. chs. 4 and 5, while seigniorage is examined in B. iv. ch. 6. The treatise, *The Coins of the Realm* (London, 1805), by the first earl of Liverpool, elaborately discussed the question of the proper standard, and has powerfully influenced monetary legislation in England and Germany. Ricardo's pamphlets on the bullion question added to the knowledge of the laws which regulated a depreciated currency. Senior, in his *Lectures on the Cost of obtaining Money* (London, 1829), developed the theory of the international distribution of the precious metals.

The last half century has been a time of active discussion regarding monetary questions,—the gold discoveries, international coinage, decimal coinage, bimetallicism, the resumption of specie payments in countries where an inconvertible currency has existed, each of these topics having had its special literature. Some of these works have been mentioned when dealing with the special questions they refer to, and these, in turn, refer to many others. It will suffice here to mention more general works. The theory of money is dealt with by the leading English economists in their systematic works (Mill, *Principles*, B. iii. chs. 7-10, 19, 21; Fawcett, *Manual*, B. iii. chs. 5, 6, 15, 16; Shadwell, *System*, B. iii. chs. 1-3 and 8), also by Cherbuliez (*Précis*, B. ii. ch. 3, vol. i. and B. ii. ch. 3, vol. ii.). Chevalier has devoted the third volume of his *Cours* (Paris, 1842-50) to the subject, with the title of "La Monnaie." The late Professor W. S. Jevons's valuable work, *Money and the Mechanism of Exchange*, and Professor Hussey Walsh's concise *Treatise on Metallic Currency* (Dublin, 1853) may also be used. More elaborate than either of these is F. A. Walker's *Money*, the most comprehensive work on the subject in English; his smaller work, *Money in its Relation to Trade and Industry*, is likewise very good. Wolowski's *L'Or et l'Argent* contains much information, as does also Knies's *Das Geld*. E. Seyd's *Bullion and Foreign Exchanges* is serviceable, but the changes since its publication (1869) deprive it of most of its value. The various editions of Tate's *Cambist* give the most accurate (though often imperfect) statements as to the facts of currency. Jacob's work on *The Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals* gives many interesting details, though the conclusions are often fanciful, and the authorities relied on not trustworthy. The recent work of Del Mar, *History of the Precious Metals* (London, 1880), furnishes a criticism and continuation of Jacob, and supplies many new details. His criticism of the "cost of production" theory as applied to gold and silver is especially useful. Some of his views on the moral aspects of the question need qualification. Professor Sumner's *History of the American Currency* may be relied upon for its facts. The *Reports* of the various conferences also supply abundant information on their special topics. Among these may be mentioned the *Proceedings of the Paris conferences of 1867, 1878, and 1881*; the *Decimal Coinage Commission* (1868); the *French Enquête Monétaire* (1870); and the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Depreciation of Silver* (1876). The *Reports of the (English) Mint* furnish information as to the coinage changes of each preceding year. (C. F. B.)

been learning physics, he was made a teacher of it. Returning to Beaune for a vacation, he made, on a large scale, a plan of the town, inventing the methods of observation and constructing the necessary instruments; the plan was presented to the town, and preserved in their library. An officer of engineers seeing it wrote to recommend Monge to the commandant of the military school at Mézières, and he was received as draftsman and pupil in the practical school attached to that institution; the school itself was of too aristocratic a character to allow of his admission to it. His manual skill was duly appreciated: "I was a thousand times tempted," he said long afterwards, "to tear up my drawings in disgust at the esteem in which they were held, as if I had been good for nothing better." An opportunity, however, presented itself: being required to work out from data supplied to him the "element" of a proposed fortress (an operation then only performed by a long arithmetical process), Monge, substituting for this a geometrical method, obtained the

result so quickly that the commandant at first refused to receive it—the time necessary for the work had not been taken; but upon examination the value of the discovery was recognized, and the method was adopted. And Monge, continuing his researches, arrived at that general method of the application of geometry to the arts of construction which is now called descriptive geometry. But such was the system in France before the Revolution that the officers instructed in the method were strictly forbidden to communicate it even to those engaged in other branches of the public service; and it was not until many years afterwards that an account of it was published. The method consists, as is well known, in the use of the two halves of a sheet of paper to represent say the planes of *xy* and *yz* at right angles to each other, and the consequent representation of points, lines, and figures in space by means of their plan and elevation, placed in a determinate relative position.

In 1768 Monge became professor of mathematics, and in 1771 professor of physics, at Mézières; in 1778 he married Madame Horbon, a young widow whom he had previously defended in a very spirited manner from an unfounded charge; in 1780 he was appointed to a chair of hydraulics at the Lycée in Paris (held by him together with his appointments at Mézières), and was received as a member of the Academy; his intimate friendship with Berthollet began at this time. In 1783, quitting Mézières, he was, on the death of Bezout, appointed examiner of naval candidates. Although pressed by the minister to prepare for them a complete course of mathematics, he declined to do so, on the ground that it would deprive Madame Bezout of her only income, arising from the sale of the works of her late husband; he wrote, however (1786), his *Traité élémentaire de la Statique*.

Monge contributed (1770-1790) to the *Memoirs* of the Academy of Turin, the *Memoires des Savants Etrangers* of the Academy of Paris, the *Memoires* of the same Academy, and the *Annales de Chimie*, various mathematical and physical papers. Among these may be noticed the memoir "Sur la théorie des déblais et des remblais" (*Mém. de l'Acad. de Paris*, 1781), which, while giving a remarkably elegant investigation in regard to the problem of earth-work referred to in the title, establishes in connexion with it his capital discovery of the curves of curvature of a surface. Euler, in his paper on curvature in the Berlin *Memoirs* for 1760, had considered, not the normals of the surface, but the normals of the plane sections through a particular normal, so that the question of the intersection of successive normals of the surface had never presented itself to him. Monge's memoir just referred to gives the ordinary differential equation of the curves of curvature, and establishes the general theory in a very satisfactory manner; but the application to the interesting particular case of the ellipsoid was first made by him in a later paper in 1795. A memoir in the volume for 1783 relates to the production of water by the combustion of hydrogen; but Monge's results in this matter had been anticipated by Watts and Cavendish.

In 1792, on the creation by the Legislative Assembly of an executive council, Monge accepted the office of minister of the marine, but retained it only until April 1793. When the Committee of Public Safety made an appeal to the savants to assist in producing the *matériel* required for the defence of the republic, he applied himself wholly to these operations, and distinguished himself by his indefatigable activity therein; he wrote at this time his *Description de l'art de fabriquer les canons*, and his *Avis aux ouvriers en fer sur la fabrication de l'acier*. He took a very active part in the measures for the establishment of the Normal School (which existed only

during the first four months of the year 1795), and of the School for Public Works, afterwards the Polytechnic School, and was at each of them professor for descriptive geometry; his methods in that science were first published in the form in which the shorthand writers took down his lessons given at the Normal School in 1795, and again in 1798-99. In 1796 Monge was sent into Italy with Berthollet and some artists to receive the pictures and statues levied from several Italian towns, and made there the acquaintance of General Bonaparte. Two years afterwards he was sent to Rome on a political mission, which terminated in the establishment, under Massena, of the shortlived Roman republic; and he thence joined the expedition to Egypt, taking part with his friend Berthollet as well in various operations of the war as in the scientific labours of the Egyptian Institute of Sciences and Arts; they accompanied Bonaparte to Syria, and returned with him in 1798 to France. Monge was appointed president of the Egyptian commission, and he resumed his connexion with the Polytechnic School. His later mathematical papers are published (1794-1816) in the *Journal* and the *Correspondance* of the Polytechnic School. On the formation of the Senate he was appointed a member of that body, with an ample provision and the title of count of Pelusium; but on the fall of Napoleon he was deprived of all his honours, and even excluded from the list of members of the reconstituted Institute. He died at Paris on the 28th July 1818.

For further information see B. Brisson, *Notice historique sur Gaspard Monge*; Dupin, *Essai historique sur les services et les travaux scientifiques de Gaspard Monge*, Paris, 1819, which contains (pp. 162-166) a list of Monge's memoirs and works; and the biography by Arago (*Euvres*, t. ii., 1854).

Monge's various mathematical papers are to a considerable extent reproduced in the *Application de l'Analyse à la Géométrie*, 4th edition (last revised by the author), Paris, 1819—the pure text of this is reproduced in the 5th edition (revue, corrigée et annotée par M. Liouville), Paris, 1850, which contains also Gauss's Memoir, "Disquisitiones generales circa superficies curvas," and some valuable notes by the editor. The other principal separate works are *Traité élémentaire de la Statique*, 8e édition, conforme à la précédente, par M. Hachette, et suivie d'une Note etc., par M. Cauchy, Paris, 1846; and the *Géométrie Descriptive* (originating, as mentioned above, in the lessons given at the Normal School). The 4th edition, published shortly after the author's death, seems to have been substantially the same as the 7th (*Géométrie Descriptive par G. Monge, suivie d'une théorie des Ombres et de la Perspective, extraite des papiers de l'auteur*, par M. Brisson, Paris, 1847). (A. CA.)

MONGHYR, or **MUNGIR**, a district in the lieutenant-governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 22' and 25° 49' N. lat., and 85° 40' and 86° 52' E. long., is bounded on the N. by Darbhanga and Bhāgalpur, on the E. by Bhāgalpur, on the S. by the Santāl Parganās and Hazāribāgh, and on the W. by Gayā, Patnā, and Darbhanga, with an area of 3922 square miles. The Ganges divides the district into two portions. The northern, intersected by the Burī Gandak and Tiljūgā, two important tributaries of the Ganges, is always liable to inundation during the rainy season, and is a rich, flat, wheat and rice country, supporting a large population. A considerable area, immediately bordering the banks of the great rivers, is devoted to permanent pasture. Immense quantities of buffaloes are sent every hot season to graze on these marshy prairies; and the *ghī*, or clarified butter, made from their milk forms an important article of export to Calcutta. To the south of the Ganges the country is dry, much less fertile, and broken up by fragmentary ridges. The soil consists of quartz, mixed in varying proportions with mica. Ranges of hills intersect this part of the district, and in the extreme south form conical peaks, densely covered with jungle, but of no great height. Irrigation is necessary throughout the section lying on the south of the Ganges.

In 1872 the population of Monghyr was 1,812,986 (males, 897,074; females, 915,912); Hindus, 1,613,546; Mohammedans,

182,269; the remainder, consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes and hill races, profess primitive forms of faith. There are also a few Buddhists and Christians. Seven towns contained upwards of 5000 inhabitants in 1872—Monghyr, 59,698; Shaikhpara, 11,536; Jamalpur, 10,453; Barhiya, 10,405; Surajgarha, 7935; Barbigha, 6362; and Jamui, 5197. No trustworthy statistics of the area under cultivation exist since the revenue survey in 1847, when it was returned at 1,311,768 acres; it is known, however, that cultivation has largely extended since then. The land is held principally under the tenure known as *bhaddi-jot*, by which the tenant pays rent, either in money or in kind, according to the out-turn of his crops in each year. It is of ancient standing, and popular with the tenantry. Monghyr is famous for its manufactures of iron: firearms, swords, and iron articles of every kind are produced in abundance, but are noted for cheapness rather than quality. The art of inlaying sword-hilts and other articles with gold and silver affords employment to a few families. The most important manufacture, however, is that of indigo, conducted by means of European capital and under European supervision. The total area under indigo is estimated at about 10,000 acres, with an average out-turn of 2900 cwts. of dye. Minor industries include weaving, dyeing, cabinet-making, boot-making, soap-boiling, and pottery. The principal exports, sent to Calcutta both by rail and river, are oil-seeds, wheat, rice, indigo, gram and pulse, hides, and tobacco; and the chief imports consist of European piece goods, salt, and sugar. The value of the former in 1876-77 was £430,000, and of the latter £314,000. Education is making fair progress, and in 1874-75 there were 229 Government and aided schools, attended by 6675 pupils. The climate is dry and healthy. The temperature is high

MONGOLS

THE early history of the Mongols, like that of all central-Asian tribes, is extremely obscure. Even the meaning of the name "Mongol" is a disputed point, though a general consent is now given to Schott's etymology of the word from "mong," meaning brave. From the earliest and very scanty notice we have of the Mongols in the history of the Tang dynasty of China (A.D. 619-90) and in works of later times, it appears that their original camping-grounds were along the courses of the Kerulon, Upper Nonni, and Argun rivers. But in the absence of all historical particulars of their origin, legend, as is usual, has been busy with their early years. The Mongol historian Ssanang Ssetzen gives currency to the myth that they sprang from a blue wolf; and the soberest story on record is that their ancestor Budantsar was miraculously conceived of a Mongol widow. By craft and violence Budantsar gained the chieftainship over a tribe living in the neighbourhood of his mother's tent, and thus left a heritage to his son. Varying fortunes attended the descendants of Budantsar, but on the whole their power gradually increased, until Yesukai, the father of Jenghiz Khan, who was eighth in descent from Budantsar, made his authority felt over a considerable area. How this dominion was extended under the rule of Jenghiz Khan has already been shown (see JENGHIZ KHAN), and when that great conqueror was laid to rest in the valley of Keleen in 1227 he left to his sons an empire which stretched from the China Sea to the banks of the Dnieper.

Over the whole of this vast region Jenghiz Khan set his second surviving son Oghotai or Ogdai as khakan, or chief khan, while to the family of his deceased eldest son Juchi he assigned the country from Kayalik and Kharezem to the borders of Bulgar and Saksin "where'er the hoofs of Mongol horses had tramped;" to Jagatai, his eldest surviving son, the territory from the borders of the Uigur country to Bokhara; while Tulé, the youngest, received charge of the home country of the Mongols, the care of the imperial encampment and family, and of the archives of the state. The appointment of Ogdai as his successor, being contrary to the usual Mongol custom of primogeniture, gave rise to some bitterness of feeling among the followers of Jagatai. But the commands of Jenghiz Khan subdued these murmurs, and Ogdai was finally led to the throne

in the hot weather, reaching 107° Fahr. in May; but the cold weather is cool and pleasant. The average annual rainfall is 46½ inches. Malarial fever is comparatively uncommon, but epidemics of cholera occur frequently.

Monghyr was one of the principal centres of the Mohammedan administration in Bengal. In the early years of British rule, Monghyr formed a part of Bhágalpur, and was not created a separate district till 1832.

MONGHYR, chief town and administrative headquarters of the above district, is situated on the south bank of the Ganges (25° 22' N. lat., 86° 30' E. long.). The population in 1872 was 59,698: viz., Hindus, 44,900; Mohammedans, 14,346; Buddhists, 33; Christians, 305; "others," 24.

In 1195 Monghyr, a fortress of great natural strength, appears to have been taken by Muhammad Bakhtyar Khilji, the first Moslem conqueror of Bengal. Henceforth it is often mentioned by the Mohammedan chroniclers as a place of military importance, and was frequently chosen as the seat of the local government. After 1590, when Akbar established his supremacy over the Afghan chiefs of Bengal, Monghyr was long the headquarters of his general, Todar Mall, and it also figures prominently during the rebellion of Sultán Shujá against his brother, Aurangzeb. In more recent times Nawáb Mir Kásim, in his war with the English, selected it as his residence and the centre of his military preparations. The fame of Monghyr armourers is said to date from the arsenal which he established. The town is now purely a civil station, and in some respects one of the most picturesque in Bengal.

by his dispossessed brother amid the plaudits of the assembled Mongols. The ceremony was completed by Ogdai making three solemn genuflexions to the sun, and by the princes taking an oath by which they swore "that so long as there remained of his posterity a morsel of flesh which thrown upon the grass would prevent the cows from eating, or which put in the fat would prevent the dogs from taking it, they would not place on the throne a prince of any other branch." In accordance with Mongol customs, Ogdai signalized his accession to the throne by distributing among his grandees presents from his father's treasures, and to his father's spirit he sacrificed forty maidens and numerous horses. Once fairly on the throne, he set himself vigorously to follow up the conquests won by his father. At the head of a large army he marched southwards into China to complete the ruin of the Kin dynasty, which had already been so rudely shaken, while at the same time Tulé advanced into the province of Honan from the side of Shense. Against this combined attack the Kin troops made a vigorous stand, but the skill and courage of the Mongols bore down every opposition, and over a hecatomb of slaughtered foes they captured Kai-fung Foo, the capital of their enemies. From Kai-fung Foo the emperor fled to Joo-ning Foo, whither the Mongols quickly followed. After sustaining a siege for some weeks, and enduring all the horrors of starvation, the garrison submitted to the Mongols, and at the same time the emperor committed suicide by hanging. Thus fell in 1234 the Kin or "Golden" dynasty, which had ruled over the northern portion of China for more than a century.

But though Ogdai's first care was to extend his empire in the rich and fertile provinces of China, he was not forgetful of the obligation under which Jenghiz Khan's conquests in western Asia had laid him to maintain his supremacy over the kingdom of Kharezem. This was the more incumbent on him since Jelál al-dín, who had been driven by Jenghiz into India, had returned, reinforced by the support of the sultan of Delhi, whose daughter he had married, and, having reconquered his hereditary domains, had advanced westward as far as Tifis and Khelat. Once more to dispossess the young sultan, Ogdai sent a force of 300,000 men into Kharezem. With such amazing rapidity did this army march in pursuit of its foe that the

advanced Mongol guards reached Amid (Diarbekr), whither Jelál al-dín had retreated, before that unfortunate sovereign had any idea of their approach. Accompanied by a few followers, Jelál al-dín fled to the Kurdish mountains, where he was basely murdered by a peasant. The primary object of the Mongol invasion was thus accomplished; but, with the instinct of their race, they made this conquest but a stepping-stone to another, and without a moment's delay pushed on still farther westward. Unchecked and almost unopposed, they overran the districts of Diarbekr, Mesopotamia, Erbil, and Khelat, and then advanced upon Azerbaijan. So great was the terror with which these fierce warriors inspired the people of the provinces they attacked that single Mongols are said to have slain the inhabitants of entire villages without a hand having been raised against them. In the following year (1236) they invaded Georgia and Great Armenia, committing frightful atrocities, sparing neither man nor woman, young nor old, with the exception of those whom they saved to minister to their wants or passions. Tifis was among the cities captured by assault, and Kars was surrendered at their approach in the vain hope that submission would gain clemency from the victors. Meanwhile, in 1235, Ogdai, whose troops were as numerous as their thirst for conquest was devouring, despatched three armies in as many directions. One was directed against Corea, one against the Sung dynasty, which ruled over the provinces of China south of the Yang-tsze Keang, and the third was sent westward into eastern Europe. This last force was commanded by Batu, the son of Juchi, Ogdai's deceased eldest brother, who took with him the celebrated Sabutai Bahádur as his chief adviser. Bulgar, the capital city of the Bulgars, fell before the force under Sabutai, while Batu pushed on over the Volga. With irresistible vigour and astonishing speed the Mongols made their way through the forests of Penza and Tamboff, and appeared before the "beautiful city" of Riazan. For five days they discharged a ceaseless storm of shot from their balistas, and, having made a breach in the defences, carried the city by assault on the 21st of December 1237. "The prince, with his mother, wife, sons, the boyars, and the inhabitants, without regard to age or sex, were slaughtered with the savage cruelty of Mongol revenge; some were impaled, some shot at with arrows for sport, others were flayed or had nails or splinters of wood driven under their nails. Priests were roasted alive, and nuns and maidens ravished in the churches before their relatives." No eye remained open to weep for the dead. Moscow, at this time a place of little importance, next fell into the hands of the invaders, who then advanced against Vladimir. After having held out for several days against the Mongol attacks, the city at length succumbed, and the horrors of Riazan were repeated. The imperial family, with a vast crowd of fugitives, sought shelter in the cathedral, only to perish by the swords of the conquerors or by the flames which reduced it to ashes. If possible, a more dire fate overtook the inhabitants of Kozelsk, near Kaluga, where, in revenge for a partial defeat inflicted on a Mongol force, the followers of Batu held so terrible a "carnival of death" that the city was renamed by its captors Mobalig, "the city of woe." With the tide of victory thus strong in their favour the Mongols advanced against Tifis, "the mother of cities," and carried it by assault. The inevitable massacre followed, and the city was razed to the ground. While the scene of bloodshed was at its height a catastrophe occurred which at any other time would have been considered of supreme horror. Under the weight of a vast crowd of fugitives the flat roof of the metropolitan church fell in, burying all, young and old, in a vast hecatomb.

Victorious and always advancing, the Mongols, having

desolated this portion of Russia, moved on in two divisions, one under Batu into Hungary, and the other under Baidar and Kaidu into Poland. Without a check, Batu marched to the neighbourhood of Pesth, where the whole force of the kingdom was arrayed to resist him. The Hungarian army was posted on the wide heath of Mohi, which is bounded by "the vine-clad hills of Tokay," the mountains of Lomnitz, and the woods of Diosgyor. To an army thus hemmed in on all sides defeat meant ruin, and Batu instantly recognized the dangerous position in which his enemies had placed themselves. To add to his chances of success he determined to deliver his attack by night, and while the careless Hungarians were sleeping he launched his battalions into their midst. Panic-stricken and helpless, they fled in all directions, followed by their merciless foes. Two archbishops, three bishops, and many of the nobility were among the slain, and the roads for two days' journey from the field of battle were strewn with corpses. The king, Béla IV., was saved by the fleetness of his horse, though closely pursued by a body of Mongols, who followed at his heels as far as the coast of the Adriatic, burning and destroying everything in their way. Meanwhile Batu captured Pesth, and on Christmas Day 1241, having crossed the Danube on the ice, took Gran by assault. While Batu had been thus triumphing, the force under Baidar and Kaidu had carried fire and sword into Poland. At their approach the inhabitants of Cracow deserted the city, after having given it over to the flames. Disappointed at the loss of their expected spoil, the Mongols advanced to Wahlstatt in the neighbourhood of Liegnitz, where the Polish army under Duke Henry II. of Silesia awaited their onslaught. With savage impetuosity, the troops of Baidar rushed to the attack, and completely defeated the Poles. As usual, no quarter was given. The massacre was frightful, and Duke Henry himself was amongst the slain. It was a Mongol habit to cut off an ear from each corpse of their slaughtered foes, and on this occasion it is said that they filled nine sacks with these ghastly trophies. Following the example of the inhabitants of Cracow, the people of Liegnitz left but the blackened walls of what had once been the town as a prey for the Mongols, who without delay pushed south-eastward into Moravia as far as the vicinity of Troppan. While laying waste the country in the neighbourhood of that town, they received the announcement of the death of Ogdai, and at the same time a summons for Batu to return eastwards into Mongolia.

While his lieutenants had been thus carrying his arms in all directions, Ogdai had been giving himself up to ignoble ease and licentiousness. Like many Mongols, he was much given to drink, and it was to a disease produced by this cause that he finally succumbed on the 11th of December 1241. He was succeeded by his son Kuyuk, who reigned only seven years. Little of his character is known, but it is noticeable that his two ministers to whom he left the entire conduct of affairs were Christians, as also were his doctors, and that a Christian chapel stood before his tent. This leaning towards Christianity, however, brought no peaceful tendencies with it. On the contrary, we hear of an advance against the sultan of Rüm (Asia Minor), and of an expedition into Syria, by which that country was made tributary to the Great Mongol empire, of a fresh campaign against Corea, and of another attack on the Sung dynasty of China. On the death of Kuyuk dissensions which had been for a long time smouldering between the houses of Ogdai and Jagatai broke out into open war, and after the short and disputed reigns of Kaidu and Chapai, grandsons of Ogdai, the lordship passed away from the house of Ogdai for ever.

On the 1st of July 1251 Mangu, the eldest son of Tulé, and nephew to Ogdai, was elected khakan. With