

MONTAUBAN, chief town of the department of Tarn-et-Garonne, France, is situated on a slight eminence between the right bank of the Tarn and its tributary streams the Tesou and Lagarrigue, 128 miles by rail east-south-east of Bordeaux. It is connected with the suburb of Ville-Bourbon on the left bank of the Tarn by a remarkable brick bridge of the 14th century, which is 672 feet in length, and consists of seven pointed arches resting on piers, themselves pierced by pointed arches. The cathedral, built in 1739, contains the Vow of Louis XIII., one of the finest paintings of Ingres, a native of Montauban, and at the end of the Carmelite walk a monument was erected to his memory in 1871. In the town-house, once occupied as a palace by the counts of Toulouse and by the Black Prince, are the paintings bequeathed by Ingres, an archaeological collection, and a very curious library containing the bequests of several celebrated collectors. Montauban possesses a Protestant theological college. The town has some trade in corn, wine, and grapes. The manufacture of corn-dressers, coarse cloth, pens, and earthen and china ware are the principal industries; and there are also corn and woollen mills. The population in 1881 was 28,335.

Montauban was only a village in the time of the Romans. In the 8th century a monastery was founded there by the Benedictines, who exercised lordship over the neighbouring population. A considerable impetus was in the 12th century given to its prosperity by a decree of the counts of Toulouse offering freedom to all serfs taking up their residence in the town. Montauban was twice besieged by Simon de Montfort in the Albigensian wars, and was sacked in 1207. By the treaty of Bretigny (1360) it was ceded to the English; but shortly afterwards they were expelled by the inhabitants. In 1560 the bishops and magistrates embraced Protestantism, expelled the monks, and demolished the cathedral. About ten years later it became one of the Huguenot strongholds, and formed a small independent republic. It was the headquarters of the Huguenot rebellion of 1621, and was vainly besieged by Louis XIII. for eighty-six days; nor did it submit until after the fall of Rochelle in 1629, when its fortifications were destroyed by Richelieu. In the same year the plague cut off over 6000 of its inhabitants.

MONTBÉLIARD, chief town of an arrondissement in the department of Doubs, France, is situated 1020 feet above the sea at the confluence of the Allaine and the Lusine, tributaries of the Doubs, and on the canal between the Rhine and the Rhone, about 40 miles north-east of Besançon. Once a fortified city, it still retains the old castle of the counts of Montbéliard. A bronze statue of Cuvier, the most illustrious native of Montbéliard, and several fine fountains adorn the town, which also possesses a museum of natural history and antiquities, and a Protestant normal school. Since 1870 a considerable impetus has been given to its prosperity by the arrival of Alsatian immigrants. The industries embrace watchmaking, the manufacture of graving tools, iron wire, files, watch-springs, and pumps, cotton spinning and weaving, printing, and tanning. The chief exports are cheese, leather, and wood. The population in 1881 was 8784, of which the great majority were Protestants.

After belonging to the Burgundians and Franks, Montbéliard was, by the treaty of Verdun (843), added to Lorraine. In the 11th century it became the capital of a countship, which formed part of the second kingdom of Burgundy, and latterly of the German empire. From the end of the 14th century until 1793 it belonged to the house of Würtemberg. It resisted the attacks of Charles the Bold, King Louis XII., and the duke of Guise, but was taken in 1676 by Marshal Luxembourg, who razed its fortifications. In 1871 the battle of Héricourt between the French and Germans had its commencement within its walls.

MONT-DORE-LES-BAINS, a village of France in the department of Puy de Dôme, 17 miles as the crow flies south-west of Clermont Ferrand, 3432 feet above the sea, on the right bank of the Dordogne not far from its source. The Monts Dore, from which it takes its name, close the valley towards the south; their culminating peak, Puy de

Sancy (6188 feet), is the highest eminence of central France. The mineral springs of Mont Dore were known to the Romans. The eight now used yield 94,600 gallons in twenty-four hours. Bicarbonate of soda, iron, and arsenic are the principal ingredients of the water; to the two last it owes its efficacy in cases of pulmonary consumption, bronchitis, asthma, and nervous and rheumatic paralysis. From the elevation and exposure of the valley, which opens to the north and runs up towards mountains never quite free from snow, the climate of Mont-Dore-les-Bains is severe, and the season is consequently short. About 5000 patients visit the place between 15th June and 15th September, when a casino and theatre are opened. The chief building is the solid but sombre bath-house (hot baths). The surrounding country, with its fir woods, pastures, waterfalls, and mountains, is very attractive. In the "park" at Mont-Dore-les-Bains, which forms a little promenade along the Dordogne, relics from the old Roman baths have been collected, but the ancient establishment must have been on a larger scale than the present one. A pantheon erected about the time of Augustus existed till the 16th century. The population in 1881 was 1438.

MONTE CARLO. See MONACO.

MONTE CASINO (or **CASSINO**). The Benedictine monastery known as the abbey of Monte Cassino is a huge square building of three stories, built on the usual Benedictine plan (see ABBEY) on the summit of a picturesque isolated hill, about 3½ miles to the north-east of the town of Cassino (Casinum) or San Germano (population about 5000), which lies midway between Rome and Naples in the valley of the Garigliano. The most prominent architectural feature is the large church (1727), richly decorated in the interior with marbles, mosaics, and paintings. The library and archivio have been spoken of elsewhere (vol. xiv. pp. 531, 548).

The date of Benedict's withdrawal from Subiaco to Cassino is 529. At that time Cassino was the site of a temple of Apollo and of a grove sacred to Venus. The result of the saint's preaching was that the natives demolished both, chapels to St Martin and John the Baptist being built in their stead, while farther up the hill a monastery began to rise. About 589 the monks were driven from it to Rome by the Lombards of Benevento, and it lay waste for more than a century, until resuscitated by Gregory II. (719). In 787 it received fresh privileges from Charlemagne; in 884 it was burnt by the Saracens, and was not restored until about seventy years later. From 1322 to 1366 the abbot held episcopal rank; under the house of Anjou he bore the title of *Abbas abbatum*, and ranked as first baron of the realm. In 1504 the abbey was sacked by the troops of Gonzalo de Cordova. In 1866 it shared the fate of all other religious houses in Italy; it is now inhabited by a few monks, and used as a seminary, having about 200 pupils.

MONTECUCULI, **RAIMONDO**, COUNT OF (1608-1680), a prince of the empire and duke of Melfi, a famous Austrian general, was born at the castle of Montecuculi in Modena, in 1608. At the age of nineteen he began his career in a regiment of infantry under his uncle, Ernest, count of Montecuculi; and during the Thirty Years' War he found many opportunities of displaying his military genius in the imperial service. In 1631, having been severely wounded, he was made prisoner while retreating after the battle of Breitenfeld. Soon after his release he was promoted to the rank of major; and he distinguished himself at the siege of Nördlingen in 1634, and at the storming of Kaiserslautern in 1635. As colonel, he took part in much hard fighting in Pomerania and in Bohemia; and in 1639 at Melnik, where he tried to prevent the Swedes from crossing the Elbe, he was taken prisoner a second time, being compelled on this occasion to spend more than two years in Stettin. The time was not lost, for he devoted it to a thorough study of military science. In 1642 he was again at work in the imperial army, and for eminent services in Silesia he was made a major-general of cavalry. After a brief visit to Italy, during which he entered the service of the duke of Modena, he returned to Germany, and became councillor

of war in 1644. In the following year he supported the archduke Leopold in a campaign against Prince Rakoczy of Transylvania, resisted Marshal Turenne in the Rhine country, and fought with the Swedes in Silesia and Bohemia. The victory at Triebel in Silesia, in 1647, was due chiefly to him, and he was rewarded by being raised to the rank of general of cavalry. After the peace of Westphalia in 1648 he occupied himself for some time with the work of the council of war; and in 1654 he undertook diplomatic missions to Christina, queen of Sweden, and to Cromwell. In 1657 he commanded an expedition against Prince Rakoczy and the Swedes, who had attacked the king of Poland, and Rakoczy was soon forced to withdraw from the Swedish alliance, and to accept terms of peace. As field-marshal he was sent to the aid of Denmark against Sweden; and this war he conducted so successfully that the peace of Oliva was concluded in 1660. In 1663 he resigned the command of an army with which, for about three years, he had been opposing the Turks; but in 1664 he was again made commander-in-chief, and in the same year he defeated the Turks so decisively near the abbey of St Gotthard that they concluded an armistice for twenty years. He had to deal with more formidable enemies in 1672, when, the emperor and the imperial diet having resolved to uphold the Dutch against Louis XIV., Montecuculi, who had been serving as president of the council of war and director of artillery, was appointed commander of the imperial forces. He took Bonn, and, although closely watched by Turenne, contrived to effect a junction with the prince of Orange, thereby overthrowing all the calculations of the French. When the elector of Brandenburg received the supreme command in 1674 Montecuculi withdrew from the army; but in 1675, being restored to his former position, he resumed operations against Turenne. The two commanders manoeuvred so brilliantly that for about four months neither could do the other much injury; but, Turenne having been killed by a cannon-ball on the 27th of July 1675, Montecuculi pursued the French into Alsace, and besieged Hagenau and Zabern, retiring from Alsace only when he found himself confronted by Condé. Montecuculi's last achievement in war was the siege of Philippsburg. During the rest of his life he was president of the council of war. In 1679 the emperor Leopold made him a prince of the empire, and shortly afterwards he received from the king of Naples the dukedom of Melfi. Having accompanied the emperor to Linz during the pestilence, he was injured by the fall of a beam when entering the castle, and died at Linz on the 16th of October 1680.

Montecuculi was an ardent lover of science, and wrote several important military works. The *Opere complete di Montecuculi* were published in two volumes, at Milan in 1807, at Turin in 1821; and there is a German translation (1736) of his *Memorie della guerra ed istruzioni d'un generale*.

See Campori, *Raimondo Montecuculi, la sua famiglia e i suoi tempi* (1877).

MONTELEONE (usually called Monteleone of Calabria to distinguish it from Monteleone of Apulia in the province of Avellino, which gave its name to the mediæval duchy of the Pignatelli family) is a city of Italy in the province of Catanzaro, on the western side of the Bruttian peninsula, and is beautifully situated on an eminence gently sloping towards the gulf of Sta Eufemia. It was almost totally destroyed by earthquake in 1783, and for many years afterwards consisted mainly of slight wooden erections, but under the French occupation it was made the capital of a province and the headquarters of General Regnier, and it is now a well-built town. The castle was built by Roger, count of Sicily, whom tradition accuses of carrying off the ruins of the ancient temple of Proserpine to the cathedral of Mileto. The population of the town was 9244 in 1871, that of the commune 10,262 in 1861 and 12,047 in 1881.

Monteleone is identified with the ancient Hipponium, a Greek city first mentioned in 359 B.C., when its inhabitants were removed to Syracuse by Dionysius. Restored by the Carthaginians (356), held for a time by Agathocles of Syracuse (294), and afterwards occupied by the Bruttians, Hipponium ultimately became as Vibo Valentia a flourishing Roman colony. The harbour established by Agathocles proved of great service as a naval station to Caesar and Octavius in their wars with Pompeius Magnus and Sextus Pompeius, and remains of its massive mason-work still exist at the village of Bivona on the coast. In the town itself there are no traces of antiquity beyond a mosaic pavement in the church of St Leoluca (patron saint of Monteleone) and one or two Latin inscriptions.

MONTELMAR, chief town of an arrondissement and canton in the department of Drôme, France, is situated near the left bank of the Rhone, 93 miles south of Lyons on the railway to Marseilles. The waters of the Roubion and Jabron, which unite at Montélimar, spread fertility over the plains surrounding the town. A well-planted park separates the town from the station, but within the four gates that still remain the streets are narrow and uninviting. The ancient castle, one of the most interesting military remains of central France, is now used as a prison. Silk throwing and spinning, and the manufacture of flowered silks and of hats, are the principal industries; there are also foundries, tool-shops, and tanneries, and agricultural implements and hydraulic lime are made. Montélimar is famed for its *nougat*, a cake composed of almonds and honey. The population of the town in 1881 was 12,894.

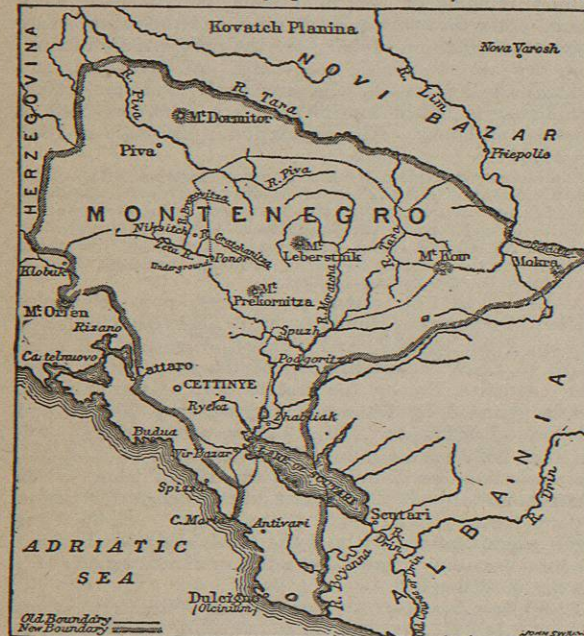
Montélimar was called by the Romans *Acsium*. At a later period it belonged to the family of Aymar or Adhémar, whence its present name. After coming into the possession of the counts of Valentinois, and then of the dauphins of Viennois, it was united by Louis XI. to the crown of France. It frequently changed hands during the religious wars, and, although it resisted Cigny, it was taken in 1589 by Lesdiguières.

MONTENEGRO, often pronounced and sometimes written **MONTENEGRO** (Montenegrin, *i.e.*, Servian, *Crnogora*, Russian *Tchernogoriya*, and Turkish *Karadagh*, all equivalent to Black Mountain), one of the smallest of European countries, lies on the eastern side of the Adriatic, and is bounded by Dalmatia, Herzegovina, Bosnia, and Albania. Previous to 1878 it had an area variously estimated at 1669 square miles (Kaptsevitch), 1711 (Kiepert), and, including the Kutchi territory, 1796 (Behm). The enlargement to about 5272 square miles proposed by the San Stefano treaty (1878) would probably have swamped the Montenegrin nationality, and the Berlin congress brought the total area only up to 3680 miles, or almost exactly half the size of Wales.¹

Apart from her new maritime district, Montenegro seems

¹ Since 1870 several rectifications of frontier and exchanges of territory have been arranged between Montenegro and Turkey, but these have left the area practically undisturbed. All the figures are approximate estimates, as the only geodetic survey of the country, carried out by Russian officers, is still (1883) in progress. The old frontier line had the great disadvantage to the Montenegrins of leaving the fortress of Niksitch in the north-west, and that of Spuzh in the south-east in the hands of the Turks, who thus commanded the valley of the Zeta, and strategically almost cut the country in two, the distance from the frontier near Niksitch to the frontier near Spuzh being only some 15 miles. The present frontier includes not only these strongholds, but also those of Podgoritza, Zhabliak (Jablac), and Lesendra, a great part of Lake Scutari, and the coast district with Antivari and Dulcigno. To get access to the sea had long been the ambition of Montenegro, which in her early days had possessed not only Dulcigno but Durazzo, and had surrendered them to purchase from Venice assistance in her struggle against the Turks. The Berlin congress gave her the coast from Cape Maria to Cape Kruci or Krutch, but Spizza, the harbour to the north, was retained by Austria, and Dulcigno, to the south, by Turkey. In the beginning of 1880, by the Corti compromise, the Kutchi territory and the plain of Podgoritza were accepted by Montenegro in lieu of Plava and Gussinye, assigned to her by the congress; but the exchange was deferred, and the terms ultimately modified by the congress so as to include Dulcigno in Montenegrin territory. The occupation of the district (November 1880) was only effected after a naval demonstration on the part of the great powers.

little better at first than a chaos of mountains, but on closer examination it appears that there are two distinct groups, an eastern and a western, divided by the Zeta-Moratcha valley. The loftiest summit is Dormitor, 8146 feet high, in the new territory near the north frontier, next come Kom Kutchi (8031), Kom Vassoyevitzki (7946), and Dormitor Schlime (7936).¹ Had the original frontier of the Berlin congress towards the south-east been retained it would have run along the still higher Prokletia range. Many of the mountain-tops remain white with snow for the greater part of the year, and from some of the dark ravines the snow never disappears. The south-western portion of the country consists of limestone, the north-eastern mainly of Palaeozoic sandstones and schists with underlying trap.² In their general aspect the two regions are strikingly distinct. The former seems, as it were, one enormous mass of hard crystalline rock, bare and calcined, with its strata dipping to the south-west at an angle often of 70 degrees. Its whole surface has been split by atmospheric agencies into huge prismatic blocks, and the cracks



Map of Montenegro.

have been gradually worn into fissures several fathoms deep. In some places the process has resulted in clusters of immense sharp-pointed crags, the sides of which are furrowed by rain-channels, while in others there are countless funnels running down into the rock for 200 feet and more. In like manner the interior of the mass is hollowed out into immense galleries and caves, and during the rainy season subterranean landslips frequently produce local earthquakes, extending over an area of 10 or 12 miles. The sandstone region, on the other hand, presents lofty but rounded forms, clothed for the most part with virgin forest or rich alpine pasture, broken here and there by dolomitic peaks.

¹ Bull. de la Soc. de Géogr., Paris, 1881.

² Dr Tietze, whose full report was to appear in the *Jahrb. der Reichsanstalt* for 1883, informed the writer that the existence of the following formations in Montenegro has been clearly ascertained:—(1) Palaeozoic schists, (2) Wirfen strata of Lower Trias, (3) Trap of the Palaeozoic and Wirfen strata, (4) Triassic limestone, (5) Jurassic limestone, (6) Cretaceous limestone, (7) Flysch, in part certainly Eocene, and (8) Neogenic or younger Tertiary formations. The existence of nummulitic limestone is still doubtful.

The watershed between the Adriatic and the Black Sea crosses the country from west to east in a very irregular line, the southern districts being drained by the Zeta-Moratcha river system, which finds its way to the Adriatic by Lake Scutari and the Boyanna, while the streams of the northern districts form the head-waters of the Drina, which reaches the Danube by way of the Save. The Zeta, rising in Lake Slano, is remarkable for its subterranean passage beneath a mountain range 1000 feet high. At a place called Ponor the water plunges into a deep chasm, seeming almost to lose itself in foam, but at a distance of several miles it reappears on the other side of the mountains. Its whole course to its junction with the Moratcha is about 30 miles. Rising in the Yavorje Planina, the Moratcha sweeps through the mountain gorges as a foaming torrent till it reaches the plain of Podgoritz; then, for a space, it almost disappears among the pebbles and other alluvial deposits, nor does it again show a current of any considerable volume till it approaches Lake Scutari. In the neighbourhood of Duklea³ and Leskopolye it flows through a precipitous ravine from 50 to 100 feet high. In the dry season it is navigable to Zhabliak. The whole course is about 60 miles. Of the left-hand tributaries of the Moratcha the Sem or Tsienna deserves to be mentioned for the magnificent cañon through which it flows between Most Tamarui and Dinoshia. On the one side rise the mountains of the Kutchi territory, on the other the immense flanks of the Prokletia range,—the walls of the gorge varying from 2000 to 4000 feet of vertical height. Lower down the stream the rocky banks approach so close that it is possible to leap across without trouble. The Ryeka issues full-formed from an immense cave south-east of Cetinje (Tsetinje) and falls into Lake Scutari. The three-tributaries of the Drina which belong in part to Montenegro are the Piva, the Tara, and the Lim, respectively 55, 95, and 140 miles in length. The Tara forms the northern boundary of the principality for more than 50 miles, but the Lim leaves the country altogether after the first 30 miles of its course. Great alterations have taken place on Lake Scutari in recent times. The river Drin, which previous to 1830 entered the Adriatic to the south of Alesia near S. Giovanni di Medua, subsequently changed its course so as to join the Boyanna just below its exit from the lake; one of the chief results has been to raise the level of the lake, and so to flood the lower valleys of the tributary streams. When the International Frontier Commission was at Scutari in April 1879, the water stood 8 feet deep in some of the principal streets, and the inundation of city and suburbs lasted that year eight months. A few small lakes are scattered among the mountains, and it is evident that their number was formerly much greater. The plain or hollow of Cetinje was doubtless filled with water at no very distant (geological) date, and even now, when the sudden rains cannot escape fast enough by the ordinary subterranean outlet, the royal village suffers from a flood.

If the new territory be left out of view, there is but little farming land in Montenegro; the peasant is glad to enclose and protect the veriest patches of fertile soil retained by the hollows in the mountain sides, and one may see "flourishing little crops not a yard square." "The largest landed proprietor is the holder of 60 acres" (Denton, *Montenegro*, p. 143); the other freehold estates vary from 2 to 20 acres, and it is usually not to the individual but to the house or family that the ownership belongs. Woods and pastures are the common property of the clan (*pleme*). The people live in small stone-built cottages, grouped for the most part in little villages, and their whole life is

³ Duklea is the name still borne by the ruins of the Roman Doclea, often, but wrongly, called Dioclea from its association with the family of Diocletian.

marked by extreme simplicity. Chastity is a national virtue, and in time of war the women and children of the Turks have often found their safest asylum among their hereditary foes. The main stock of the people is of Servian descent; and, though the purity of both blood and language has been to some extent affected by foreign elements, mostly Albanian and Turkish, the national unity has not been impaired. The curious Gipsy colony, which, though speaking Servian, never intermarries with the Montenegrins, is numerically of little importance.¹ The great mass of the people belong to the Orthodox Greek Church, only some 7000 being Roman Catholics, and 3000 Mohammedans. According to Kaptsevitich, the population was 10,700 in 1838, 120,000 in 1849, 124,000 in 1852, and 170,000 in 1877, but in 1879 it was found that, inclusive of the new territory, the number could not exceed 150,000; since then about 15,000 have been added with Dulcigno. The official returns for 1882 (not based on a census, however) give 236,000 as the total, of whom some 23,000 live in the so-called towns.

Fauna.—Bears are still found in the higher forests, and wolves, and especially foxes, over a much wider area. A few chamois roam on the loftiest summits, the roebuck is not infrequent in the backwoods, the wild boar may be met with in the same district, and the hare is abundant wherever the ground is covered with herbage. There are one or two species of snakes in the country, including the poisonous Illyrian viper. Esculent frogs, tree frogs, the common tortoise, and various kinds of lizards are all common. The list of birds observed by Baron Kaulbars includes golden eagles and vultures, 12 species of falcons, several species of owls, nightingales, larks, buntings, hoopoes, partridges, herons, pelicans, ducks (10 species), goatsuckers, &c. The abundance of fish in Lake Scutari and the lower course of the Ryeka is extraordinary, the shoals of bleak (*scorantza*, *Leuciscus alburnus*) that come up the river forming almost solid masses. Both trout and salmon are caught in the Moratcha.

Flora.—The flora of Montenegro is comparatively scanty. In the forest districts the beech is the prevailing tree up to a height of 5000 or 5500 feet, and then its place is taken by the pine. The chestnut forms little groves in the country between the sea and Lake Scutari, but never ascends more than 1000 feet, and the olive also is mainly confined to the neighbourhood of the Adriatic. Pomegranate bushes grow wild, and in many parts of the south cover the foot of the hills with dense thickets, the rich blossoms of which are one of the special charms of the spring landscape. Wheat, rye, barley, maize, capsicums, and a little tobacco are grown in the north, and in the south, vines, figs, peaches, apples, cherries, citrons, oranges, &c. The potato, introduced in 1766, is cultivated considerably beyond the local demand; the planting of mulberry trees and the rearing of silk-worms is of growing economical importance.

Towns.—CETTINJE (*q.v.*), with about 2000 inhabitants, is the capital of the country. Podgoritz (about 6000 or 7000 in 1879, since reduced to 4000) is the principal trading town; it lies at the foot of the mountains (as its name imports), at the junction of the Ruibnitza with the Moratcha, and in Turkish hands was one of the strongest of their fortresses towards Montenegro. Dulcigno (see vol. vii. p. 520) has 3000 inhabitants (before the transfer 5000 to 7000). Nikitch, a fortified place on a slight eminence in the midst of a plain, is about the same size. Antivari (see vol. ii. p. 138), so called from its position opposite Bari in Italy, suffered greatly in the war 1879-80, and lost half of its 5000 inhabitants. Danilovgrad, with 2000, lies on the north side of the Zeta valley; in the vicinity is Orialuka, the prince's palace with its mulberry nurseries, and the monasteries of Zhdrebanik (burnt by the Turks in 1877, but since rebuilt), while Tcheliya, Moratcha (the most ancient in the principality), and Ostrog (visited annually by about 10,000 pilgrims) are not far off. Spuzh (Spunge), a little lower on the same side of the stream, is a fortified post with about 1000 inhabitants. Nyegush or Nyegosh (1200), about three hours distant from Cetinje on the road to Cattaro, is the native seat of the reigning family, which originally came thither from Nyegush in Herzegovina. Zhabliak (1200) was once the "capital," and has been a fortified post since the time of the Venetian power. Ryeka (1500), on the river of that name, is next to Podgoritz in commercial importance; the prince has two residences in the town. Grahovo (2000) is famous for the great battles of 1851 and 1876.

Montenegro is an absolute hereditary monarchy, vested according to the principle of primogeniture in the family of Petrovitch Nyegush. The prince bears the title "Prince of Montenegro and the Berda (mountains)"—Montenegro here meaning the old Montenegrin nahias (provinces) of Katunska, Trzmitza, Ryetchka, and

¹ See Bogišić in *Das Ausland*, 1874.

Lyeshanska, and Berda the territory added in the 18th century, or the provinces Byelopavlytchska, Piperska, Moratchska, Vasoyevitchska, and Kutska. A responsible ministry was introduced in 1877, and there are now separate departments of justice, foreign affairs, war, and finance and education. The highest administrative body is the council of state, instituted in 1879, and consisting of eight members appointed by the prince. Justice in ordinary cases is rendered in primitive fashion. Formal codes were drawn up by Peter I. (1798) and by Danilo (1855), but the real statute book is national custom. A great court, consisting of the minister of justice, and five members named by the prince, is held in the capital, and there are inferior courts in each of the captaincies (86 in 1879). While formerly the very president of the senate, Mirko Petrovitch (*ob.* 1865), whose songs are the delight of his countrymen, could neither read nor write, primary education has been widely diffused during the reign of Prince Nicholas (Nikita). In 1851 there was only one school, but before the recent war they had increased to 58, nearly every clan having one for girls as well as for boys. The female Montenegrin Institute (founded and supported by the empress of Russia) attracts pupils from beyond the frontier. It was from the printing-presses of Cetinje and Ryeka that the first books in the Slavonic languages were issued between 1483 and 1493, under the patronage especially of Ivan Beg and George (IV.) Crnoyevitch, "waywodes of the Zeta," but this promise of literary productiveness was soon cut off by wars with the Turks. Peter Petrovitch Nyegush (1813-1851), who was called to rule in 1830, is recognized as perhaps the greatest of all Servian poets,—his *Gorski Vijenac*, or "Mountain Wreath," giving dramatic expression to the "very soul of the Serbian people." Though the press which he established in 1834 was destroyed in the war of 1852-53, another was soon obtained, and under Prince Nicholas, himself a poet, his memory has proved a potent stimulus to intellectual culture. The first Montenegrin newspaper, *Crnogorac*, now *Glas Crnogoraca*, began to appear in 1870; the first book-shop was opened in 1879.²

The Montenegrins, however, have had more to do with the sword than with the pen. "Every man, dressed in the picturesque costume of his tribe, carries his pistol and yataghan in his girdle." Nominally the age of military service is between sixteen and sixty-five, but when war breaks out schoolboy and superannuated veteran are equally eager for the fray. When Prince Nicholas tried to prevent an old man of eighty from joining his forces, the insulted warrior drew his pistol and shot himself. War with the Turks, indeed, is the essence of Montenegrin history. On the death of the Servian king Stephen Dushan, Prince Balsha became independent lord of the province of the Zeta; and when the Servian power was shattered by the Turks in the battle of Kossovo (1389) his territory formed the asylum of all those who determined to make another stand for freedom. In 1485 Ivan Crnoyevitch, finding Zhabliak untenable, fixed his "capital" at Cetinje. In 1516 his son George, who had succeeded him, left his country to its fate; but the people chose their bishop as their chief. Prince-bishops or vladikas, elected by the people, continued to lead them with success against the common foe of Christendom till 1697, when the authority was handed over to Petrovitch Nyegush, with the right of appointing his successors, subject to national approval. At length, in 1851, Danilo, nephew and nominee of the previous vladika Peter II., prevailed on the "skuptchina" to declare Montenegro a secular state with the hereditary government of a prince. His nephew Nicholas succeeded to the throne in 1860, and at the close of the war 1876-78 Montenegro was declared a sovereign principality. For an account of the defeats and victories (the latter by far the more numerous) which have marked the national struggle for existence during its four centuries, the reader is referred to Denton's *Montenegro* (Lond., 1877).

See *Observations on Montenegro* (St. Pet., 1881), by Baron Kaulbars, Russian member of the International Commission; Wilkinson's *Dalmatia and Montenegro* (1848); Wingfield, *Tour in Dalmatia*, &c. (1859); Viscountess Strangford, *The Eastern Shores of the Adriatic* (1864); A. J. Evans, *Illyrian Letters* (1878); W. E. Gladstone in the *Nineteenth Century*, i.; Freeman, in *Macmillan's Mag.*, 1876; Schwarz, *Montenegro* (1882). See also the bibliographies in *Bull. de la Soc. de Géogr.* (Paris, 1865) and Valentinielli, *Bib. della Dalmazia* (Agram, 1855).

MONTEREY, a city of the United States, the capital of California up to 1847, is situated on Monterey Bay, 125 miles south from San Francisco by the southern division of the Southern Pacific Railroad. Originally founded in 1770 as a mission station and presidio (garrison) by Junipero Serra, it is still in the main a Spanish-looking town, with Spanish talk in its streets and painted on its signboards. At the meeting of the first constitutional convention of California Monterey was a port of entry with a flourishing trade and a promising future; but it soon suffered from the rivalry of San Francisco, and it is

² Cf. Pypin and Spasovitch, *Hist. of Slav. Literatures*, vol. i.

now a sleepy place, straggling and dirty, with many of its adobe buildings abandoned to decay. The flourishing Monterey whaling company (chiefly Portuguese from the Azores) has its station under the old fort; and, the Southern Pacific Railroad Company having erected (1881) a magnificent hotel, the place bids fair to become one of the leading watering-places on the Californian coast. The mission church of San Carlos, about four miles from the town, is a curious and striking ruin. Population is now (1883) about 1400.

See Franc. Palou, *Vida del ven. padre fray J. Serra*, Mexico, 1787; Lady Duffus Gordon, *Through Cities and Prairie-lands*, 1882; and *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, October 1882.

MONTEREY, a city of Mexico, capital of the state of Nuevo Leon, lies 1600 feet above the sea on a sub-tributary of the Rio Grande del Norte, 150 miles south-south-west of Nuevo Laredo, and 190 west-south-west of Matamoras. A handsome and well-planned city, with a cathedral and a number of good public buildings, Monterey is also in commercial and manufacturing activity the most important place in the northern parts of the republic, and one of the principal stations on the railway opened in 1882 between the city of Mexico and the United States frontier (at Matamoras and Nuevo Laredo). The population was about 37,000 in 1880. The city was founded in 1596, became a bishopric in 1777, and was captured by the United States forces under General Taylor in September 1846.

MONTE SAN GIULIANO, a city of Sicily, in the province of Trapani and 12 miles north-east of the town of Trapani, occupies the summit of the mountain from which it takes its name. Rising in the midst of an undulating plain, this magnificent and conspicuous peak (the Eryx of the ancients) has, whether seen from sea or land, such an appearance of altitude that, while it really does not exceed 2464 feet, it has for ages been popularly considered the culminating point of western Sicily, and second only to Mount Etna. By the Phœnicians it was early chosen as the site of a temple, which continued down to the time of the Roman empire to be one of the most celebrated of all the shrines of Venus (Venus Erycina). The ancient city of Eryx, situated lower down the mountain side, disappears from history after the establishment of the Roman power in Sicily,—the inhabitants having probably taken advantage of the protection afforded by the sanctity, fortifications, and garrison of the temple-enclosure. In the modern town, the population of which has recently decreased to about 3000 by the migration of considerable numbers to the plain, the chief points of interest are the cathedral, internally restored in 1865, the castle, which occupies the site of the temple, and the three so-called *torri del Balio*, which probably represent the propylæa. Remains of Phœnician masonry are still seen on the north side of the town. The great rock-hewn cistern in the garden of the castle is very like one of the cisterns of the Haram at Jerusalem.

The antiquities of Monte San Giuliano have been carefully investigated by Giuseppe Polizzi (*I Monumenti d'Antichità della Provincia di Trapani*), and by Professor Salinas (*Archivio Storico Siciliano*, i., &c.). Compare Renan, *Mélanges d'Histoire et de Voyages*; and Sayce in *Academy*, 30th December 1882.

MONTE SANT ANGELO, a city of Italy in the province of Foggia (Capitanata), 10 miles north of Manfredonia, stands on an offshoot of Monte Gargano 2824 feet high. In 491 the archangel Michael pointed out the place to St Laurentius, archbishop of Sipontum (Manfredonia), and the chapel, which was built over the cave, to which he drew more particular attention, soon became a famous place of pilgrimage. Though plundered by the Lombards in 657, and by the Saracens in 869, St Michael's was already a wealthy sanctuary in the 11th century, and its prosperity continued till the time of the French occupation. The canons (*Canonici Garganici*, as

they are usually called) maintained a prolonged contest with the Sipontine archbishops for episcopal independence. According to Ughelli (*Italia Sacra*, vol. vii. p. 816), a marble statue of the saint by Michelangelo Buonarroti took the place of a silver image. The bronze doors still preserved are fine pieces of Byzantine work, made, as an inscription bears witness, in Constantinople in 1076. The town of Sant' Angelo, which had only about 3000 inhabitants in the 17th century, numbered 14,759 in 1861, and 13,902 in 1871. Besides the festival of the saint celebrated on the 9th of May, there is a great fair on the 29th of September.

MONTESQUIEU, CHARLES LOUIS DE SECONDAT, BARON DE LA BRÈDE ET DE (1689-1755), philosophical historian, was born at the chateau of La Brède, about 10 miles to the south-east of Bordeaux, in January 1689 (the exact date being unknown), and was baptized on the 18th of that month. His mother was Marie Françoise de Penel, the heiress of a Gascon-English family. She had brought La Brède as a dowry to his father, Jacques de Secondat, a member of a good if not extremely ancient house, which seems first to have risen to importance in the early days of the 16th century. The title of Montesquieu came from his uncle, Jean Baptiste de Secondat, "président à mortier" in the parliament of Bordeaux,—an important office, which, as well as his title, he left to his nephew. Montesquieu was in his youth known as M. de la Brède. His mother died when he was seven years old, and when he was eleven he was sent to the Oratorian school of Juilly, near Meaux, where he stayed exactly five years, and where, as well as afterwards at Bordeaux, he was thoroughly educated. The family had long been connected with the law, and Montesquieu was destined for that profession. He was made to work hard at it notwithstanding his prospects (for his uncle's office was his by reversion); but, as in his later life, he seems to have tempered much study with not a little society. His father died in 1713, and a year later Montesquieu, or, as he should at this time strictly be called, La Brède, was admitted counsellor of the parliament. In little more than another twelvemonth he married Jeanne Lartigue, an heiress and the daughter of a knight of the order of St Louis, but plain, somewhat ill-educated, and a Protestant. Montesquieu does not seem to have made the slightest pretence of affection or fidelity towards his wife—things which, indeed, the times did not demand; but there is every reason to believe that they lived on perfectly good terms. Like the three previous years, 1716 was an eventful one to him; for his uncle died, leaving him his name, his important judicial office, and his whole fortune. He thus became one of the richest and most influential men in the district. He continued to hold his presidency for twelve years, in the course of which he had much judicial work to perform, as well as the non-descript administrative functions which under the old régime fell to the provincial parliaments. He was none the less addicted to society, and he took no small part in the proceedings of the Bordeaux Academy, to which he contributed papers on philosophy, politics, and natural science. He also wrote much less serious things, and it was during the earlier years of his presidency that he finished, if he did not begin, the *Lettres Persanes*. They were completed before 1721, and appeared in that year anonymously, with Cologne on the title-page, but they were really printed and published at Amsterdam. This celebrated book (the original notion of which is generally set down to a work of Dufresny, the comic author, but which is practically original) would have been surprising enough as coming from a magistrate of the highest dignity in any other time than in the regency of the duke of Orleans, and even as it was it rather scandalized the graver among Montesquieu's contemporaries. In the guise of letters written by and to two Persians of distinction

travelling in Europe, Montesquieu not only satirized unmercifully the social, political, ecclesiastical, and literary follies of his day in France, but indulged in a great deal of the free writing (so free as very nearly to deserve the term licentious) which was characteristic of the tale-tellers of the time. But what scandalized grave and precise readers naturally attracted the majority, and the *Lettres Persanes* were very popular, passing, it is said, through four editions within the year, besides piracies. Then the vogue suddenly ceased, or at least editions ceased for nearly nine years to appear. It is said that a formal ministerial prohibition was the cause of this, and it is not improbable; for, though the regent and Dubois must have enjoyed the book thoroughly, they were both shrewd enough to perceive that underneath its playful exterior there lay a spirit of very inconvenient criticism of abuses in church and state. The fact is that the *Lettres Persanes* is the first book of what is called the Philosophie movement. The criticism is scarcely yet aggressive, much less destructive, and in Montesquieu's hands it never became so; but what it might become in the hands of others was obvious enough. It is this precursorship in his own special line which in all probability made Voltaire so jealous of Montesquieu, as well as the advantage which a wealthy and well-born noble of high official position had over himself. It is amusing to find Voltaire describing the *Lettres* as a "trumpery book," a "book which anybody might have written easily." It is not certain that, in its peculiar mixture of light badinage with not merely serious purpose but gentlemanlike moderation, Voltaire could have written it himself, and it is certain that no one else at that time could. The reputation acquired by this book brought Montesquieu much into the literary society of the capital, and he composed for, or at any rate contributed to, one of the coteries of the day the clever but rather rhetorical *Dialogue de Sylla et d'Eucrate*, in which the dictator gives an apology for his conduct. For Mademoiselle de Clermont, a lady of royal blood, a great beauty and a favourite queen of society, he wrote the curious prose poem of the *Temple de Gnide*. This is half a narrative, half an allegory, in the semi-classical or rather pseudo-classical taste of the time, decidedly frivolous and dubiously moral, but of no small elegance in its peculiar style. A later *jeu d'esprit* of the same kind, which is almost but not quite certainly Montesquieu's, is the *Voyage à Paphos*, in which his warmest admirers have found little to praise. In 1725 Montesquieu was elected a member of the Academy, but an almost obsolete rule requiring residence in Paris was appealed to, and the election was annulled. It is doubtful whether a hankering after Parisian society, or an ambition to belong to the Academy, or a desire to devote himself to literary pursuits of greater importance, or simple weariness of not wholly congenial work determined him to give up his Bordeaux office; it is certain that he continued to hold it but a short time after this. It is tolerably clear that he had already begun his great work, and the character of some papers which, about this time, he read at the Bordeaux Academy is graver and less purely curious than his earlier contributions. In 1726 he sold the life tenure of his office, reserving the reversion for his son, and went to live in the capital, returning, however, for half of each year to La Brède. There was now no further formal obstacle to his reception in the Académie Française, but a new one arose. Ill-wishers had brought the *Lettres Persanes* specially under the minister Fleury's attention, and Fleury, a precisian in many ways, was shocked by them. There are various accounts of the way in which the difficulty was got over, but all seem to agree that Montesquieu made concessions which were more effectual than dignified. He was elected and received in January 1728. Almost immediately afterwards he started on a tour through Europe to observe

men, things, and constitutions. He travelled through Austria to Hungary, but was unable to visit Turkey as he had proposed. Then he made for Italy, where he met Chesterfield. They sojourned together at Venice for some time, and a curious story is told of the way in which either a piece of mischief on Chesterfield's part, or Montesquieu's own nervousness and somewhat inordinate belief in his own importance, made the latter sacrifice his Venetian notes. At Venice, and elsewhere in Italy, he remained nearly a year, and then journeyed by way of Piedmont and the Rhine to England. Here he stayed for some eighteen months, and acquired an admiration for English character and polity which never afterwards deserted him. He returned, not to Paris, but to La Brède, and to outward appearance might have seemed to be settling down as a squire. He altered his park in the English fashion, made sedulous inquiries into his own genealogy, arranged an entail, asserted, though not harshly, his seigniorial rights, kept poachers in awe, and so forth. Nor did he neglect his fortune, but, on the contrary, improved his estates in every way, though he met with much opposition, partly from the dislike of his tenants to new-fangled ways, and partly from the insane economic regulations of the time, which actually prohibited the planting of fresh vineyards. Although, however, Montesquieu was enough of a grand seigneur to be laughed at, and enough of a careful steward of his goods to be reviled for avarice, by those of his contemporaries who did not like him, these matters by no means engrossed or even chiefly occupied his thoughts. In his great study at La Brède (a hall rather than a study, some 60 feet long by 40 wide) he was constantly dictating, making abstracts, revising essays, and in other ways preparing his great book. Like some other men of letters, though perhaps no other has had the experience in quite the same degree, he found himself a little hampered by his earlier work. He may have thought it wise to soften the transition from the *Lettres Persanes* to the *Esprit des Lois*, by interposing a publication graver than the former and less elaborate than the latter. He had always, as indeed was the case with most Frenchmen of his century, been interested in ancient Rome and her history; and he had composed not a few minor tractates on the subject, of which many titles and some examples remain, besides the already-mentioned dialogue on Sylla. All these now took form in the *Considérations sur les Causes de la Grandeur et la Décadence des Romains*, which appeared in 1734 at Amsterdam, without the author's name. This, however, was perfectly well known; indeed, Montesquieu formally presented a copy to the French Academy. Anonymity of title-pages was a fashion of the day which meant nothing. The book was not extraordinarily popular in France at the time. The author's reputation as a jester stuck to him, and the salons affected to consider the *Lettres Persanes* and the new book respectively as the "grandeur" and the "décadence de M. de Montesquieu;" but more serious readers at once perceived its extraordinary merit, and it was eagerly read abroad. A copy of it exists or existed which had the singular fortune to be annotated by Frederick the Great, and to be abstracted from the Potsdam library by Napoleon. It is said, moreover, by competent authorities to have been the most enduringly popular and the most widely read of all its author's works in his own country, and it has certainly been the most frequently and carefully edited. Its merits are indeed undeniable. Merely scholastic criticism may of course object to it, as to every other book of the time, the absence of the exactness of modern critical inquiry into the facts of history; but this is only a new example of a frequent *ignoratio elenchi*. The virtue of Montesquieu's book is not in its facts but in its views. It is (putting Bossuet and Vico aside) almost