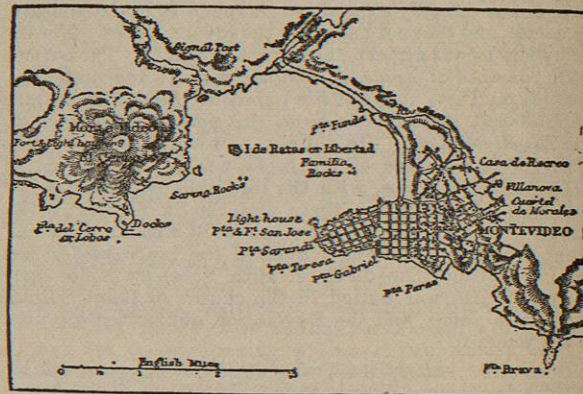


Ingenieri as "maestro di capella;" and in 1607 he produced, for the marriage of Francesco Gonzaga, his first opera, *Ariana*, in which he employed the newly-discovered discords with irresistible effect. Though he did not invent the lyric drama—Peri's *Euridice* having been produced at Florence in 1600—he raised it to a level which distanced all contemporary competition. His second opera, *Orfeo*, composed in 1608, was even more successful than *Ariana*, and was based upon a principle which is held by some modern critics to embody the only law to which the dramatic composer owes obedience—that of accommodating the music to the exigencies of the scene. In 1613 Monteverde was invited to Venice, as "maestro di capella" at St Mark's. Here he composed much sacred music, the greater part of which is lost,—a circumstance the less to be regretted, since his *Vespers* and *Masses* bear no comparison with those produced by his predecessors in office. In 1630 he wrote another grand opera, *Proserpina rapita*. In 1639 he produced *L'Adone*, and in 1641 *Le Nozze di Enea* and *Il ritorno d'Ulisse*. These later works show him still greatly in advance of his age, notwithstanding the progress made by other composers since the production of *Orfeo*. Monteverde was ordained priest in 1633; and he died in 1643, universally respected. Though his free employment of the dominant seventh and other unprepared discords put an end to the school of Palestrina, it led the way to the greatest achievements of modern music.

MONTEVIDEO, SAN FELIPE Y SANTIAGO DE, the capital of the republic of Uruguay (Banda Oriental) in South America, lies on the eastern side of a nearly semicircular bay on the northern shore of the estuary of the La Plata, 120 miles from Buenos Ayres, with which communication is maintained by a daily service of steamers. The small peninsula on which the city is built does not rise more than 95 feet above the level of the sea; but the headland of Cerro, 505 feet high, which forms the western side of the bay, is notable enough on that low-lying coast to justify the name Montevideo; it is crowned by a lighthouse, and by an old Spanish fort, once of considerable strength. About 620 acres is the area occupied by the city proper; the suburbs stretch for miles into the country. The plan both of the old and the new town is regular; they are separated by the Calle de la Ciudadela on the line of the old ramparts. A somewhat Oriental appearance is produced by the low houses with their flat terraced roofs and *miradors* or watch-towers, from which the merchants look out for ships. As a whole, the city is overbuilt, and immense wealth has been squandered in Italian marbles and other forms of architectural decoration. The streets are for the most part well paved, and there is an extensive tramway system. Mare's grease was for some time employed to make gas for lighting; but an epidemic having commenced at the gas-yard the works were for a time closed, and when they were reopened coal-gas was substituted. Previous to 1870, when water was introduced from a distance of 40 miles, the whole supply was dependent on the rainfall. In the old town the principal square is the Plaza de la Constitucion, the south side of which contains the "cathedral," and the north side the *cabildo* (law-courts, senate-house, and prison). The cathedral (as it is usually called, though the bishop is a bishop *in partibus*, and takes his title from Megera in Asia Minor) is a somewhat imposing building, consecrated 21st October 1804, with a dome and two side towers 133 feet high, which form one of the best landmarks of the bay. In the line of the old ramparts formerly stood the old Spanish citadel, which was built by the seven years' forced labour of 2000 Guarani Indians. From 1835 to 1868 it served as the principal market in the city; in 1877 it was removed and the area united with the fine Plaza de la Independencia at the south-western end of the Calle del 18 Julio, a broad

street which runs in a straight line right through the new town. The new market, covering 2 acres, was built in 1867 at a cost of £86,000, and there are besides the Port market (cost £55,320) and the Mercado Chico. The exchange, constructed after the style of the house at Bordeaux, dates from 1864, and cost £32,000. Of note also are the custom-house, the post office (1866), the museum, the public library (founded in 1830 by Dr J. M. Perez Castellano), the university (dating from 1849), the Solis theatre (1856), the British hospital (established in 1857, present building 1867), the Hospital de Caridad (founded by Francisco A. Macil in 1825), having an average of 300 patients, the new lunatic asylum (1877), the Basque church (1858), and the English church (1845), built on the site of a battery taken in 1807 by Sir Samuel Auchmuty's forces. Since the beginning of



Map of Montevideo.

the century the depth of water in the bay has been allowed to diminish 5 feet, and the area has been reduced by the construction (1868) of an embankment to carry the railway across it. Dredging has been tried from time to time, but on too limited a scale. The so-called harbour is a space of less than half a mile square off the north-west face of the town; in 1870 it was reported to be yearly becoming smaller and less safe, and vessels are now obliged to anchor farther out. Among modern improvements in the port the most noteworthy are the Maua dry docks, opened in 1873, and the larger docks, erected in 1877 at a cost of 2,000,000 dollars, at the foot of the Cerro on the other side of the bay. The trade of Montevideo consists mainly in the export of the raw products of the slaughter-house (horns, hides, hair, tallow, wool, bones), with a certain quantity of live stock and preserved meat, and in the import of European manufactures. During the five years 1877-1881 the average value of the exports was £2,303,061, and that of the imports £3,469,997. Of the 1044 vessels (tonnage 780,870) which entered in 1879, 285 were English, 157 Spanish, 145 Italian, 112 German, and 99 French. The population is largely of foreign origin, Italian, Spanish, Basque, and French. In 1874 the Italians, who had rapidly increased after the siege, were about 40,000 strong, and in several quarters of the city nothing was to be heard save North-Italian dialects. Even in 1880, after the exodus caused by the confiscations of 1875, they numbered 36,300. The greater proportion are engaged as petty traders. In 1879 the total population of the town was 73,879; it had been 92,260 in 1878, and 105,296 in 1871, and now (1883), including the environs, is 110,167.

Montevideo owes its origin not to the commercial advantages of its position but to the jealousy of the Spaniards towards the Portuguese, which led Zabala, viceroy of Buenos Ayres, to erect a fort at this point in 1717. In 1726 the first settlers were introduced from the Canary Islands and Andalusia, and more than fifty

years passed before the settlement was declared a port; but by 1781 it had 6460 inhabitants, and by 1792 was importing to the value of 2,993,267 dollars, and exporting to the value of 4,150,523. In 1808 the governor of Montevideo was the first to revolt against the Spanish authorities, and to establish an independent junta; twenty years later, after much disastrous confusion and conflict, the city became the recognized capital of the newly-formed republic of Banda Oriental. Its population, which had been about 36,000 at the opening of the century, was reduced to 9000 by 1829; and it had hardly recovered its ground in this respect (31,189) when, in 1843, Rosas, dictator of Buenos Ayres, wishing to compel annexation to Buenos Ayres, commenced the siege which was irregularly maintained till 1852, and left the city and the country exhausted and almost ruined. By 1860, however, the population had increased to 49,548; and though the Brazilians blockaded the port in 1864-5 and reinstated ex-president Flores the prosperity of the place was but little impaired. During the Paraguayan war, which lasted till 1864, Montevideo grew rapidly rich, attracting a large share of the trade diverted from Buenos Ayres. Immigrants flocked from all quarters, and excessive investments were made in all kinds of real property. The valuation of the city and suburbs, which was 14,156,000 dollars in 1860, reached the sum of 74,000,000 dollars in 1872. Reckless speculation, political dissension, and the financial mismanagement of the Government have told heavily; the value of house property has greatly diminished, and commercial activity has been grievously restricted. Since 1881, however, Montevideo has been rapidly recovering, and its natural advantages are so great that, with better political circumstances, a future of yet higher prosperity may be anticipated.

Notices of Montevideo will be found in Bonelli, *Travels in Bolivia*, &c., 1854; Hadfield, *Brazil, the River Plate, &c.*, 1854, and his supplemental volume, 1868; Mulhall, *Handbook of the River Plate Republics*, 1874; and Gallenga, *South America*, 1881. See also Brignardello, *Delle vicende dell' America merid. e specim. di Montevideo nell' Uruguay*, Genoa, 1879; *The Republic of Uruguay*, 1883; the reports of the municipal junta, and Vaillant's statistical publications.

MONTEZUMA. See CORTES and MEXICO.

MONTEFAUCON, BERNARD DE (1655-1741), critic and scholar, was born of a noble and ancient family at the chateau of Soulage (now Soulatgé, in the department of Aube, France), on 13th January 1655. Though destined for the army, he passed most of his time in the library of the castle of Roquetaillade (the usual residence of his family), devouring books in different languages and on almost every variety of subject, his studies being directed by a learned friend of his father, Pavillon, bishop of Aleth. In 1672 he entered the army, and in the two following years served as a volunteer in Germany under Turenne. But ill-health and the death of his parents brought him back to his studious life, and in 1675 he entered the cloister of the Congregation of St Maur, at La Daurade, Toulouse, taking the vows there on 13th May 1676. Apart from his vast literary labours, the remainder of his life presents little to record. He lived successively at various abbeys—at Sorèze, where he specially studied Greek and examined the numerous MSS. of the convent library, at La Grasse, and at Bordeaux; and in 1687 he was removed to Saint Germain des Prés. From 1698 to 1701 he lived in Italy, chiefly in Rome. Returning to Saint Germain, he was made a member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres in 1719. He died on 21st December 1741.

His first publication, in which he was assisted by Lopin and Pouget, was the first volume of a never completed series of previously unpublished *Anales Græci* (1688). In 1690 appeared his defence of the literally historical character of the book of Judith. *Athanasii opera omnia*, still the best edition of that father, was issued with a biography and critical notes in 1698. The first-fruits of his visit to Italy were seen in his copious *Diarium Italicum, sive monumentorum veterum, bibliothecarum, mssorum, &c., notitia singularis in itinere Italico collecta* (1702). The *Palaographia Græca, sive de ortu et progressu litterarum Græcarum, et de variis omnium seculorum scripturis Græca generibus* (1708) is a standard work, which has not yet been superseded; in its own field it is as original as the *De re diplomatica* of Mabillon. In 1718 Montefaucon edited *Hexaplorum Origenis quæ supersunt* (2 vols. fol.), only recently superseded by the work of Field; and between 1718 and 1738 he completed his edition of *Joannis Chrysostomi opera omnia* (13 vols. fol.), which is hardly an improvement upon that of H. Saville. His *L'Antiquité expliquée et représentée en figures* (10 vols. fol., 1719) would of itself suffice to establish a reputation for colossal diligence. It was continued by him in *Les Monuments de la Monarchie Française* (5 vols. fol., 1729-1733). A complete list of his literary labours, including his numerous contributions to the *Mémoires* of

the Academy of Inscriptions, will be found in the *Nouvelle Biographie Générale*, s.v. "Montefaucon."

MONTEFORT, SIMON DE, EARL OF LEICESTER (c. 1200-1265), a great political leader, and sometimes even referred to as the "founder of the English House of Commons," born in France about the beginning of the 13th century, was the fourth and youngest son of Simon IV. de Montfort and of Alice de Montmorency. Of his early life and education nothing is known, the first definitely recorded fact about him being that in April 1230 he was in England and had attached himself to the service of Henry III., who granted him a temporary pension of 400 marks, with a promise of the earldom which his father had held.<sup>1</sup> In the following year he did homage for the honour of Leicester, and in 1232 the king confirmed to him all the land with appurtenances which had belonged to the late earl in England. But, though thus formally admitted to the ranks of the English baronage, he did not for several years succeed in making way against the strong dislike in which "aliens" were now held, and until 1236 most of his time was spent, in considerable poverty, abroad. In that year, however, he attended the king's marriage to Eleanor of Provence as lord high steward, and thenceforward began to take part in the business of the royal council. Handsome, talented, and brave, he gained the love of Eleanor, widow of the earl of Pembroke, and sister of the king, to whom he was privately married at Westminster on 7th January 1238, Henry himself giving away the bride. When the fact became known, the indignation of the baronage and of the people had almost broken out in open rebellion, and after Simon had with difficulty averted this by propitiating his brother-in-law, Richard, earl of Cornwall, he found it necessary to go to Rome to meet the objections which the church had raised on the ground of an alleged previous vow made by Eleanor. Having succeeded in obtaining (by bribery, it would seem) the papal sanction to his marriage, he returned to England in October, and early next year, still in the enjoyment of the royal favour, he had the earldom of Leicester formally conferred upon him in presence of the assembled barons. In June (1239) he assisted as godfather and high steward at the baptism of Prince Edward; but the machinations of his enemies were soon afterwards successful in bringing about a change in the fickle humour of Henry, and when Simon came back to Westminster in August to attend the churching of the queen the king met him with the information that he was an excommunicated person, and ordered him to leave the church.<sup>2</sup> Along with his wife he forthwith went into voluntary exile in France; but in April 1240 he returned to England, and was received by the king on a footing of at least outward friendship. Of his private and public life during the

<sup>1</sup> Simon IV. de Montfort, the well-known Albigensian crusader, in right of his mother, Amicia de Beaumont, sister and co-heiress of Robert Fitz-Pernell, earl of Leicester, succeeded to that earldom in 1204, and in 1207 was confirmed in the high stewardship of England, hereditary in connexion with the title. Soon afterwards he was deprived of his English possessions under some pretext, the real reason doubtless being his position as captain-general of the French forces against the Albigenses (1208). He received them again towards the end of John's reign, their custody, however, being committed to his nephew, the earl of Chester. The long hostility between England and France during the early years of Henry III. made it practically impossible for the alien De Montforts to maintain any hold upon their English earldom on the death of Simon IV. in 1218; in 1231, after the peace, the eldest son Amaury (now constable of France) renounced all claim to it, thus leaving the field clear to his next surviving brother Simon.

<sup>2</sup> There is no evidence, that Simon actually had been excommunicated, but it seems clear that certain payments he had agreed to make to the Roman curia had not been punctually attended to, and that some annoyance had been in this way caused to the king. The charge of immoral relations with Eleanor was probably only a conveniently coarse way of restating the ecclesiastical offence for which De Montfort had already purchased absolution.

next eight years very few facts have been preserved. There is some ground for believing that he went to the Holy Land in 1240, and a letter is still extant in which the nobility of the kingdom of Jerusalem ask Frederick II. (June 1241) to allow Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, to act as regent till the arrival of his son Conrad. In 1242 he accompanied Henry's unsuccessful expedition to France. In the parliamentary history of these years his name appears but seldom, but where he is mentioned he is invariably found on the side of the people, resisting alike the arbitrary wastefulness of the king and the rapacious exactions of the pope. In 1248 De Montfort was appointed for six years the king's "seneschal," or "locum-tenens," in Gascony. In this capacity he was very inadequately supported from home with either men or money; he more than once subdued the rebellious provinces, indeed, but meanwhile his enemies at home gained strength and encouraged the Gascons in repeated accusations and complaints against the seneschal. These resulted in one-sided inquiries, but ultimately in his acquittal, and led to a demand on his part for reparation, and a consequent quarrel with the king. Towards the end of 1252 De Montfort retired into France, where such was the reputation he enjoyed as a statesman that, on the death of the queen-regent and in the absence of Louis IX., he was offered the office of high steward and a place among the guardians of the crown. This, however, he declined, "being unwilling to prove a renegade;" and, after a partial reconciliation with Henry, he returned to England in 1254. In the following year he was sent on a secret mission into Scotland, and in 1257 he was one of the king's ambassadors to France; but his chief activity between 1254 and 1258, if we are to judge by the prominent place he took in the revolution of the last-named year, must have been in the meetings of parliament. At the Westminster parliament in April 1258 it was significantly upon the earls of Gloucester and Leicester that the king's half-brother, William de Valence, laid the blame of all the evils under which the country was groaning, De Montfort in particular being called by him "an old traitor and a liar." At Leicester's suggestion the barons leagued for the defence of their rights, and presented themselves armed at the meeting, which extorted the appointment of the committee of twenty-four to meet at Oxford and proceed at once with the reform of the realm. The Provisions of Oxford having been signed (October 1258), De Montfort received the custody of the castle of Winchester, where the parliament continued its session, he meanwhile apparently holding the position of military commander-in-chief; and, after the removal of the barons to London, he was appointed member of an embassy to Scotland. In the early part of 1259 he was chiefly busy with the task of adjusting the terms of a peace with France, which was not settled until the end of that year. From the date of the conclusion of that peace, owing to divisions in the reforming party, the king began to regain his lost power, and in 1262 he felt himself strong enough to repudiate the Provisions of Oxford, thus giving the signal for civil war. The successes of the barons, led by De Montfort, in the west, and his victorious entry into London again reduced the king to submission, but only to bring once more also into prominence the divided state of Leicester's supporters. Louis's one-sided Mise of Amiens (1264), however, rendered another appeal to arms on the part of the barons inevitable, and by the victory of Lewes (14th May 1264) De Montfort for the time became master of England. Taking Henry, his prisoner, along with him to London, he summoned thither the parliament, which met in June, and drew up the constitution or scheme of government associated with his name, of which the most striking feature is the new development it gives to the

representative system. A still further advance in the development took place in 1265, when borough members, as distinguished from county members, were for the first time summoned. Meanwhile troubles in the west required De Montfort's presence in the field, and, by the alliance of his rival Gloucester with Roger Mortimer, as well as by the escape of Prince Edward, who put himself at the head of the royalist opposition, the great parliamentary leader was placed in serious straits. At Evesham, where he had halted on his march to join his son at Kenilworth, he was surprised by the army of Prince Edward, and after a struggle of about two hours was slain on the field of battle (4th August 1265). As regards the personal character of De Montfort, it is not surprising to find that contemporary opinion was divided; but of his determination, constancy, and energy there can be no question, while much is revealed by the fact that, though in an unauthorized way, his memory was revered in England as a saint and martyr, offices were drawn up in his honour, his intercession invoked, and miraculous virtues attributed to his relics. The painstaking labours of recent investigators have tended to bring into clearer light the purity and nobleness of purpose of Simon de Montfort as a consistent defender of the rights of the governed; on the other hand, it has also become obvious that the representative institutions of England, though largely helped forward by him, can hardly be claimed as his creation. Thus on both sides the statement of Hume that the House of Commons was planted by the inauspicious hand of this bold and artful conspirator must be rejected as inconsistent with the facts.

Compare ENGLAND, vol. viii. p. 310 *seq.*, and see the monographs of Pauli (*Simon von Montfort, Graf von Leicester, Der Schöpfer des Hauses der Gemeinen*, Tübingen, 1867) and Prothero (*The Life of Simon de Montfort*, 1877), and the literature there referred to.

MONTGOMERY (Welsh, *Sirudd Tre Faldwyn*), an inland county of Wales, is bounded E. by Shropshire, N.E. by Denbigh, N.W. by Merioneth, S.W. by Cardigan, and S. by Radnor. Its greatest length from south-east to north-west is about 40 miles, and its breadth from east to west about 35 miles. The area is 495,089 acres, or about 773 square miles. The surface is broken and undulating, but it is only round the borders of the county that the hills reach any great height, the highest summits of the different ranges being generally in the adjoining counties. To the north are the Berwyn chain, stretching into Denbighshire, in the east the Breidden hills, in the south the Kerry hills, and in the south-west Plinlimmon, the highest summit of which is in Cardigan. These various mountain ranges form the watershed of the numerous rivers of Montgomeryshire. With the exception of the Dyfi, which rises near Bala Lake and falls into Cardigan Bay, and the Wye, which flows south into Radnorshire, all the principal rivers are tributaries of the Severn (Welsh, *Hafren*), which rises on the east side of Plinlimmon and traverses the whole length of the county from south-west to north-east. The principal of these tributaries are the Clywedog, the Taranon, the Rhiew, and the Vyrnwy. This fine succession of river-valleys broaden out as they reach the great vale of the Severn, and the beauty of the scenery is enhanced by an abundance of oak and other trees. The Montgomeryshire canal, which has a length of 27 miles, and passes the principal towns, is connected with the Ellesmere canal, thus affording water communication with Chester and Shrewsbury.

Montgomeryshire is occupied chiefly by Lower Silurian rocks. The boundary between it and Merioneth is formed by the Bala beds. In the centre and east, near Llanfair and Montgomery, Wenlock shales prevail. In the neighbourhood of Welshpool the Silurian rocks have been frequently dislocated by volcanic masses, one of the most

remarkable of which is Corndon Hill, rising to a height of 1700 feet. In some places the sedimentary rocks have been penetrated by trap mingled with shale or schist. Along the lines of dislocation there are frequent deposits of metallic lodes, carried there by the heated water rising from below. The lead mines of Montgomeryshire are of considerable importance, and at present the metal is wrought at seven different places. In 1881 the amount of lead ore obtained in the various mines was 3432 tons, yielding 2693 tons of lead and 25,432 oz. of silver, the total value being £36,495. There were also obtained 1414 tons of zinc ore, yielding 610 tons of zinc, of a total value of £3231.

**Agriculture.**—The climate is mild and genial, and the soil in the valleys remarkably fertile, especially along the banks of the Severn. A considerable portion on the borders of Merioneth is, however, occupied chiefly by heath and moss. The number of holdings has been rather decreasing of late years, the decrease being chiefly in those below 50 acres in extent, which in 1880 (the latest year regarding which there is information) numbered 3572, while there were 1650 between 50 and 300 acres, and 45 above 300 acres, of which 2 were above 1000. According to the agricultural returns of 1882, the total area of arable land was 256,084 acres, or nearly one-half of the whole. Of this 53,533 were under corn crops, 163,441 were permanent pasture, 23,882 rotation grasses, and only 11,107 green crops; 457 acres were under orchards, 2 under market gardens, 37 under nursery grounds, and 22,744 under woods. Of the corn crops, wheat occupied 18,665 acres, and oats 23,937 acres. Cattle, which are chiefly Herefords and cross-breeds, though there are some Devons and a few of the old Montgomeryshire breed, numbered 62,033 in 1882, of which 21,912 were cows and heifers in milk or in calf. Horses in 1882 numbered 13,985, of which 7066 were used solely for agricultural purposes. The county was long famous for its hardy breed of small horses called *morlins*, which are still to be met with. Many good hunters and cart-horses are now bred. The number of sheep in 1882 was 305,641. On some of the heath lands in the centre and west of the county a diminutive breed of sheep called *cluns* is pastured, but those kept in the better cultivated regions are principally Shropshire Downs. According to the latest return, the land was divided among 3241 proprietors, possessing 337,342 acres, with a gross annual rental of £378,512. Of these, 1314, or 40 per cent., possessed less than one acre, 32 possessed between 1000 and 2000 acres, and 25 between 2000 and 5000; the following possessed upwards of 5000 acres, viz.—Earl Powis, 33,545; Sir W. W. Wynn, 32,963; Lord Sudeley, 17,158; J. Naylor, 9275; and marquis of Londonderry, 7400.

**Manufactures.**—In all the towns the manufacture of woollen cloth, especially Welsh flannel, is carried on, and although the industry was lately on the decline it is now reviving.

**Administration and Population.**—Montgomeryshire comprises nine hundreds, and the municipal boroughs of Llanidloes (3421) and Welshpool (7107). Llanfyllin, Llanidloes, Machynlleth, Montgomery, Newtown, and Welshpool form the Montgomery district of boroughs, with a total population in 1881 of 19,925, and return one member to parliament. One member is also returned for the county. Montgomeryshire is partly in the dioceses of Bangor, Hereford, and St Asaph, and contains sixty-eight civil parishes, townships, or places, as well as parts of other parishes in adjoining counties. From 65,700 in 1831 the population had increased in 1851 to 67,335, and in 1871 to 67,623, but in 1881 it had diminished to 65,713, of whom 33,004 were males and 32,714 females.

**History.**—At the time of the Roman invasion, Montgomery was possessed by a tribe of the Cymri called Ordovices. Traces of several of the old British camps still remain, the principal being those at Dolarddyn, on Breidden Hill, and at Caereinion. There are also a large number of cairns and barrows. The county was traversed by the great Roman road, the *Via Devana*, which was joined by a number of others; but the remains of Roman camps or stations are unimportant. After being vacated by the Romans, little is known of the history of Montgomery, until Wales was subdivided into three districts at the death of Rhodri the Great. Montgomery was then included under Powys, and formed the chief portion of Powys Gwenwynwyn, sometimes called Upper Powys. Powys or Powis Castle, the seat of the rulers of Upper Powys, was founded in 1108. Baldwin, from which the county takes its Welsh name, was lieutenant of the marches; and, for the purpose of holding the district in check, a castle was built about the end of the 11th century, which, after being captured by the natives, was retaken by Roger de Montgomery. He gave his name to the castle, and to the surrounding district of ancient Powys, which was made a county by Henry VIII. in 1533.

MONTGOMERY, the county town, is situated on the declivity of a well-wooded hill near the eastern bank of the Severn, 21½ miles south by west of Shrewsbury, and 187½

by rail north-west by north of London. It is a clean and well-built town, but somewhat scattered and irregular. The principal buildings are the parish church of Saint Nicholas (an old cruciform structure) and the town-hall. The borough has returned members to parliament since the time of Henry VIII., but by the Reform Act of 1832 it was constituted one of the Montgomery district of boroughs, which together return one member. The population of the borough (area, 3323 acres) was 1194 in 1881.

There are only a few crumbling remains of the old fortress of Montgomery, originally founded in the time of William the Conqueror to overawe the Welsh, and held by Roger de Montgomery, from whom the town takes its name. The castle was greatly enlarged in the time of Henry III., when it was the scene of frequent contests between that monarch and Llewelyn the Great. In the 14th century it was held by the Mortimers, from whom it passed to the house of York. By the crown it was granted in the 15th century to the Herberts of Cheshire, but during the Civil War it was surrendered by Lord Herbert of Cheshire to the Parliamentary forces, by whom it was dismantled.

MONTGOMERY, a district in the lieutenant-governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 58' and 31° 33' N. lat., and between 72° 29' and 74° 10' E. long., is bounded on the N.E. by Lahore, on the S.E. by the river Sutlej, on the S.W. by Miltán, and on the N.W. by Jhang. The area is 5573 square miles. Montgomery district, formerly known as Gugaira, occupies a wide extent of the Bári Doáb, or wedge of land between the Sutlej and the Rávi, besides stretching across the latter river into the adjoining Rechna Doáb. In the former tract a fringe of cultivated lowland skirts the bank of either river, but the whole interior upland consists of a desert plateau partially overgrown with brushwood and coarse grass, and in places with impenetrable jungle. On the farther side of the Rávi, again, the country at once assumes the same desert aspect.

The census of 1868 returned the population at 359,437 (males 200,016, females 159,421), viz., Hindus, 69,805; Mohammedans, 277,291; Sikhs, 12,286; and "others," 55. The Játs, or pastoral tribe, form the most distinctive class in the district. They bear the name of "Great Rávi," in contradistinction to the purely agricultural classes, who are contemptuously styled "Little Rávi." They possess a fine physique, with handsome features, claim a Rájpút ancestry, and despise all who handle the plough. In former days they exercised practical sovereignty over the agricultural tribes. Only two towns in the district contain over 5000 inhabitants, viz., Pak Pattan (6086) and Kamalia (5695). The town of Montgomery, the headquarters station, had a population of only 2418 in 1868.

Out of a total assessed area of 3,569,746 acres, only 538,240 are returned as under cultivation. In 1872-73 the *rabi* (or spring harvest) acreage was as follows:—wheat (the chief crop), 162,989 acres; barley, 30,134; gram, 21,416; mustard, 2077; and tobacco, 1303 acres. In the same year the *kharif* (or autumn harvest) acreage was:—*jadár*, 20,509 acres; rice, 18,727; cotton, 16,916; *til*, 12,457; *kangni*, 9493; and sugar-cane, 498 acres. Irrigation is practised from rivers, canals, and wells; the total area irrigated by public works is 66,495 acres, and by private works, 153,709. The desert uplands afford after the rains a scanty pasturage for the scattered herds of the Great Rávi Játs, and yield an impure carbonate of soda (*sajji*) from the alkaline plants with which they abound. The commercial staples include wheat, rice, gram, millets, cotton, wool, *ghi*, hides, and *sajji*. Large numbers of camels are bred for exportation. The imports comprise sugar, salt, oil, English piece goods, metals, indigo, and fruits. The manufactures consist of country cloth, coarse striped silk, and lacquered wood-work. The Lahore and Miltán railway intersects the district, which is also traversed in every direction by good unmetalled highways. The revenue of the district in 1871-72 amounted to £47,954, of which £42,355 was derived from the land-tax. Education in 1871-72 was afforded by 59 aided and unaided schools, with a total of 1417 pupils. The average annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872-73 was 9.6 inches.

From time immemorial the Rechna Doáb has formed the home of a wild race of pastoral Játs, who have constantly maintained a sturdy independence against the successive rulers of northern India. The historians of Alexander's invasion mention a tribe called the Cathæans, who probably had their capital at Sangala in the Jhang district, and the Malli with their metropolis at Miltán, as in possession of this part of the country. The sites of Kot Kamalia and Harappa in Montgomery contain large mounds of antique bricks and other ruins, while many other remains of ancient cities

or villages lie scattered along the river bank, or dot the now barren stretches of the central waste, clearly marking the former existence of a considerable population. The pastoral tribes of this barren expanse do not appear to have paid more than a nominal allegiance to the Moslem rulers, and even in later days, when Ranjit Singh extended the Sikh supremacy as far as Multán, the country yielded little or no revenue, and the population for the most part remained in a chronic state of rebellion. British influence was first exercised in the district in 1847, when an officer was deputed to effect a summary settlement of the land revenue. Direct British rule was effected on the annexation of the Punjab in 1849. The only incident since then was a general rising of the wild clans during the mutiny of 1857, several actions being fought before the clans were defeated and dispersed and order restored.

MONTGOMERY, a city of the United States, the capital of Alabama, is built on a high bluff on the left bank of the Alabama river, 158 miles north-east of Mobile, with which it is connected by rail (180 miles) and by a steamboat service (330 miles). The State-house, rebuilt in 1851 at a cost of \$75,000, occupies a commanding site on Capitol Hill. There are a city-hall, a court-house, and two theatres, a large flour-mill, a cotton-factory, two oil-mills, a fertilizer-factory, and several foundries and machine shops. The population was 16,713 in 1880; and, in consequence of the marked increase in commercial and industrial activity since that date, it is now (1883) estimated at 19,000. Founded in 1817, and named after General Richard Montgomery (1736-75), the town of Montgomery became in 1847 the seat of the State Government instead of Tuscaloosa. From February 1861 to May 1862 it was the capital of the Southern Confederation. In 1865 it was seized by the Federal forces under General Wilson.

MONTGOMERY, ALEXANDER, whose life fell between 1550 and 1610, was the last of the series of Scottish poets who flourished in the 16th century under the patronage of the Jameses. With the union of the crowns, and the transference of James VI. from Edinburgh to London, court favour was withdrawn from Lowland Scotch; it practically ceased to be a literary language, and no poetry of mark was written in the dialect, if we except that of Allan Ramsay's school, till it reappeared in literature as the instrument of the Ayrshire peasant. By a curious coincidence, Montgomery seems to have been, like Burns, a native of Ayrshire. A commendatory sonnet from his pen, extravagantly flattering, as was the custom of the time, was printed with King James's *Essays of a Prentice* in 1584; he received a pension from the crown a few years later, fell into disgrace apparently for a time, was reinstated in favour, and accompanied his patron to England. As might be expected from the poet of a court where the king himself was a keen critic, Montgomery's miscellaneous poems show a careful attention to form; he tried many metrical experiments, and managed many complicated staves with skill. The sonnet form, at that time a leading fashion in English verse, was also cultivated at the Scottish court, and Montgomery's sonnets possess considerable merit. His most successful poem, published in 1597, and frequently reprinted in Scotland, was the allegory of *The Cherry and the Slae*. The poet, smitten by Cupid, conceives a longing for some cherries, beautiful fruit, but growing high up on a steep and dangerous bank, above a roaring waterfall. Shall he climb and win? Hope and courage and will urge him to try; dread and danger and despair counsel him to be content with the humbler fruit of the sloe, which grows within easy reach. Experience, reason, wit, and skill debate the question. In the end he resolves to venture for the cherry, with the active help of these last-named powers. The conflicting counsels of the poet's advisers are very pithily expressed in proverbs for and against the adventurous enterprise, and the description of the situation is strong and vivid. Montgomery was no unworthy successor to Henryson and

Dunbar in executive finish, but the want of originality in his poems shows that the old impulse was nearly exhausted. There are traces of Italian influence in his sonnets and love songs, but it was much less powerful with him than with his English contemporaries.

MONTGOMERY, JAMES (1771-1854), poet and journalist, was justly described by Lord Byron, in a footnote to *English Bards and Scotch Reviewers*, as "a man of considerable genius," though it was going far beyond the mark to speak of his *Wanderer of Switzerland* (his first notable poem, published in 1806) as being worth a thousand "Lyrical Ballads." Montgomery was born 4th November 1771, at Irvine in Ayrshire, Scotland. Part of his boyhood was spent in Ireland, but he received his education in Yorkshire, at the Moravian school of Fulneck, named after the original home of the Moravians, to which sect his father belonged. He drifted at an early age into journalism, and edited the *Sheffield Iris* for more than thirty years. When he began his career the position of a Dissenting journalist was a difficult one, and he twice suffered imprisonment (in 1795 and 1796) on charges that now seem absurdly forced and unfair. His *Wanderer* was mercilessly ridiculed by the *Edinburgh Review*, but in spite of this Montgomery published many poems, which had a wide popularity:—*The West Indies*, 1810; *The World Before the Flood*, 1812; *Greenland*, 1819; *Songs of Zion*, 1822; *The Pelican Island*, 1827. On account of the religious character of his poetry, he is sometimes confounded with Robert Montgomery, very much to the injustice of his reputation. The inspiring force of James Montgomery's poetry was the humanitarian sentiment which has been such a power in the political changes of this century, and the pulse of this sentiment is nowhere felt beating more strongly than in his verse. His poetry has thus an historical interest altogether apart from its intrinsic value as poetry. But this value is far from contemptible or commonplace. Strictly speaking, Montgomery was more of a rhetorician than a poet, but his imagination was bold, ardent, and fertile, and more than one of his greater contemporaries owed occasional debts to his vigorous invention and even to his casual felicities of diction, while some passages from his poems keep a place in the literature that is universally read and quoted. At the close of his career as a journalist, when all parties agreed in paying him respect, he claimed for his poetry that it was at least not imitative, and the claim was just as regarded conception and choice of subjects; but as regards diction and imagery the influence of Campbell is very apparent in his earlier poems, and the influence of Shelley is supreme in the *Pelican Island*, his last and best work as a poet. His *Lectures on Poetry and General Literature*, published in 1833, show considerable breadth of sympathy and power of expression. *Memoirs* of him were published in seven volumes in 1856-8. They furnish valuable materials for the history of English provincial politics in the 19th century. He died at Sheffield 30th April 1854.

MONTGOMERY, ROBERT (1807-1855), author of *The Omnipresence of the Deity* (1828), *Satan* (1830), and *The Messiah* (1832), was the Montgomery ridiculed and denounced in Macaulay's famous essay. As a poet, he deserved every word of Macaulay's severe censure; the marks of intellectual feebleness—tautologous epithets, absurdly mixed metaphors, and inapt lines introduced for the sake of rhyme—are visible in every page of his versification. It should be mentioned that Macaulay's "trouncing" did not diminish the sale of his so-called poems; one of the works expressly ridiculed reached its 28th edition in 1858. His real name is said to have been Gomery.

MONTH. See ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 800, and CALENDAR.

MONTILLA, a small and unimportant city of Spain in

the province of Cordova, 32 miles to the south of the city of Cordova, on the Malaga railway, is strikingly situated on two hills which command a beautiful and extensive prospect of the surrounding country. The manufactures (principally weaving) are unimportant, and the trade of the place is chiefly in agricultural produce. The oil of the surrounding district is abundant and good; and it is the peculiar flavour of the pale dry light wine of Montilla that gives its name to the sherry known as Amontillado. The population in 1878 was 13,207. Montilla was the birthplace of "The Great Captain," and still shows the ruins of the castle of his father, Don Pedro Fernandez de Cordova.

MONTLUC, BLAISE DE LASSERAN-MASSÉCÔME, SEIGNEUR DE (c. 1503-1577), marshal of France, was born about 1503, at the family seat near Condom in the modern department of Gers. He was the eldest son, and his family was a good one, but it was large and poor, and, like most gentlemen of Gascony, he had to trust for endowment to his sword. He served first as a private archer and man-at-arms in Italy, with Bayard for his captain, fought all through the wars of Francis I., and was knighted on the field of Cérsoles (1538). Having apparently enjoyed no patronage, he was by this time a man of middle age. Thenceforward, however, his merits were recognized by his appointment to various important posts. His chief feat was the famous defence of Siena (1555), which he has told so admirably. When the religious wars broke out in France, Montluc, a staunch royalist, held Guienne for the king, and exercised severe but impartial justice on Catholics and Protestants alike. He would have nothing to do with the Massacre of St Bartholomew. Henry III., however, made him marshal of France, an honour which he had earned by nearly half a century of service and by numerous wounds. He died at Estillac near Agen in 1577. Montluc's eminence above other soldiers of fortune in his day is due to his *Commentaires* (Bordeaux, 1592), in which he described his fifty years of service. This book, the "soldier's Bible" (or "breviary," according to others), as Henry IV. called it, is one of the most admirable of the many admirable books of memoirs produced by the unlearned gentry of France at that time. It is said to have been dictated, which may possibly account in some degree for the singular vivacity and picturesqueness of the style. Hardly any author excels Montluc in the clearness with which he brings military operations before the reader. As with most of his contemporaries, his work is didactic in purpose, and he often pauses to draw morals for the benefit of young commanders, but never tediously. The eloquence displayed in some of the speeches is remarkable. These *Commentaires* are to be found conveniently in the collection of Michaud and Poujoulat, but the standard edition is that of the *Société de l'Histoire de France*, edited by M. de Ruble (5 vols. 1865-72).

MONTLUÇON, the industrial capital of the centre of France, sometimes called the French Manchester, is the head of an arrondissement, and the largest town (26,079 inhabitants in 1881) of the department of Allier. The upper town consists of steep, narrow, winding streets, and preserves several buildings of the 15th and 16th centuries; the lower town, traversed by the river Cher (there converted into a canal communicating with that along the Loire), is the seat of the manufacturing industries, which embrace glass, steel, and iron works, lime-kilns, saw-mills, and a wool-spinning factory. The Commeny coal-mines are only a few miles distant. There is railway connexion with Moulins (50 miles to the east-north-east), Bourges, Limoges, and Clermont-Ferrand, and a new line is about to be opened to Tours via Chateauroux. Of the churches, Notre Dame is of the 15th century, St Pierre partly of the 12th, and St Paul modern. The town-hall, with a library, occupies the

site of an old Ursuline convent, and two other convents now serve as college and hospital.

Montluçon, which existed as early as the 10th century, was taken by the English in 1171 and by Philippe Auguste in 1181; the English were beaten under its walls in the 14th century. The castle, rebuilt by Louis II., duke of Bourbon, was taken by Henry IV. during the religious wars; at present it is occupied as a barracks.

MONTMORENCY, the name of one of the oldest and most distinguished families in France, is derived from Montmorency, now in the department of Seine-et-Oise, in the immediate neighbourhood of Enghien and St Denis, and about 9 miles to the north-north-west of Paris. The family, since its first appearance in history in the person of BOUCHARD or BURCHARD I., sire de Montmorency in the 10th century, has furnished six constables and twelve marshals of France, several admirals and cardinals, numerous grand officers of the crown and grand masters of various knightly orders, and was declared by Henry IV. to be, after that of the Bourbons, the first house in Europe. MATTHIEU I., sire de Montmorency, received in 1138 the post of constable, and died in 1160. His first wife was Aline, the natural daughter of Henry I. of England; his second, Adelaide or Alice of Savoy, widow of Louis VI. and mother of Louis VII. According to Duchesne, he shared the regency of France with Suger, during the absence of the latter king on the second crusade. MATTHIEU II. had an important share in the victory of Bouvines (1214), and was made grand constable in 1218. During the reign of Louis VIII. (1223-1226) he distinguished himself chiefly in the south of France (Niort, Rochelle, Bordeaux). On the accession of Louis IX. he was one of the chief supports of the queen-regent Blanche of Castile, and was successful in reducing all the vassals to obedience. He died in 1230. His younger son, Guy, in right of his mother, became head of the house of Montmorency-Laval. ANNE de Montmorency (1493-1567), so named, it is said, after his godmother Anne of Brittany, was the first to attain the ducal title. He was born at Chantilly in 1493, and was brought up with the dauphin, afterwards Francis I., whom he followed into Italy in 1515, distinguishing himself especially at Marignano. In 1516 he became governor of Novara; in 1520 he was present at the Field of Cloth of Gold, and afterwards had charge of important negotiations in England. Successful in the defence of Mézières (1521), and as commander of the Swiss troops in the Italian campaign of the same year, he was made marshal of France in 1522, accompanied Francis into Italy in 1524, and was taken prisoner at Pavia in 1525. Released soon afterwards, he was one of the negotiators of the treaty of Madrid, and in 1530 reconducted the king's sons into France. On the renewal of the war by Charles V.'s invasion of France in 1536, Montmorency compelled the emperor to raise the siege of Marseilles; he afterwards accompanied the king of France into Picardy, and on the termination of the Netherlands campaign marched to the relief of Turin. In 1538, on the ratification of the ten years' truce, he was rewarded with the office of constable, but in 1541 he fell into disgrace, and did not return to public life until the accession of Henry II. in 1547. In 1548 he repressed the insurrections in the south-west, particularly at Bordeaux, with great severity, and in 1549-1550 conducted the war in the Boulonnais, negotiating the treaty for the surrender of Boulogne on 24th March 1550. In 1551 his barony was erected into a duchy. Soon afterwards his armies found employment in the north-east in connexion with the seizure of Metz, Toul, and Verdun by the French king. His attempt to relieve St Quentin issued in his defeat and captivity (10th August 1557), and he did not regain his liberty until the peace of Cateau-Cambrésis in 1559. Supplanted in the interval by the Guises, he was treated with coldness by the new king, Francis II., and compelled to give up his mastership of the royal house-