

educational institutions comprise an academy of art and technical science, a naval school, an industrial school, a deaf and dumb asylum, &c. In the Groote Markt (to the south of the Hoog Straat) stands the bronze statue of Erasmus (Gerrit Gerrits), erected by his fellow-citizens in 1682; and his birth-house, now a tavern in Wijde Kerkstraat, is distinguished by a Latin inscription. The statue by Grefs of Gijbert Karel van Hogendorp (1762-1834), a great Dutch statesman, gives his name to the Hogendorpsplein, formerly Boymansplein, behind the museum; in the "Park," which extends west along the bank of the Maas, is a marble statue by Strackée of Hendrik Tollens, the Dutch poet; and the Nieuwmarkt is adorned with a fountain in memory of the jubilee (1863) of the restoration of Dutch independence (1813). Extensive works for supplying the town with filtered water were constructed between 1870 and 1875, the water in the river and canals being rendered unwholesome by the sewerage, the treatment of which naturally presents great difficulties in a city lying in great part below high-water level. The most important industrial establishment is that of the Netherlands Steamboat Company, who are ship-owners, shipbuilders, and engineers; there are also extensive sugar-refineries and a great variety of smaller factories for the production of lead, iron, and copper wares, white lead, varnishes, tobacco and cigars, beer and vinegar, chocolate and confectionery, &c. Rotterdam is, however, not so much a manufacturing as a commercial city, and its commercial progress has been very striking since the middle of the century. While in 1846 it had only 321,764 tons out of the total of 1,024,705 tons which then represented the export trade of the Netherlands, in 1883 it had 1,940,026 tons out of a total of 3,953,009 tons. In 1850 it had only 27.9 per cent. of the outgoing vessels, and 35.77 per cent. of the tonnage; by 1870 it had 35.60 per cent. of the vessels and 50.37 of the tonnage, and by 1883 43.75 per cent. of the vessels, and 49.08 of the tonnage. Rotterdam has thus become what Amsterdam formerly was—the principal port in the country. For steamers it is now, since the opening of the new waterway through the Hoek van Holland in 1872, only two hours distant from the sea, and the channel is deep enough for vessels drawing 22 feet of water.<sup>1</sup> From 4471 vessels with a register tonnage of 1,688,700 tons in 1873, the shipping clearing from the Netherlands by the new waterway had increased by 1884 to 8177 vessels with register tonnage of 4,382,100 tons. Upwards of 18,000 emigrants left Europe by Rotterdam in 1881. Besides its maritime trade Rotterdam commands a most extensive river traffic, not only with the towns of the Netherlands, but with those of Belgium and Germany. With Germany alone its Rhine traffic amounted in 1883 to 1,706,587 tons, against 2,021,644 for all the other ports of the Netherlands. On January 1, 1885, Rotterdam owned 43 sailing vessels and 50 steamships with a united aggregate burden of 99,018 tons. Owing

<sup>1</sup> Previously the only direct way to the sea was by the Brielle (Brill) Channel, where in 1856 the fairway had gradually diminished in depth to 5 feet at low water and 11 or 12 feet at high water. In 1866 the works for the new waterway were commenced, and by November 1868 the canal from the Scheur (or northern arm of the Maas) across the Hoek had been dug. The seaward piers were completed to the originally proposed length of (together) 2800 metres, but in 1874 they were prolonged to a total of 4300 metres, thus jutting out into the sea for more than a mile. Contrary to expectations the scour was not strong enough to widen the fairway; and works for this purpose were commenced in 1877, and at a later period the width of 900 metres between the piers was reduced to 700 metres by constructing an inner pier north of the south pier. The whole work has cost upwards of 23,000,000 guilders (£1,750,000)—15½ millions expended up to 1879, and 7½ between 1881 and 1884. With the exception of a contribution of not more than 3,000,000 from the city of Rotterdam, the entire sum has been paid by the state.

to the great increase of navigation and commerce the berthing accommodation of the port frequently proves too small, though by the works at Fijenoord the length of the quays has of late years been extended by about 8000 metres. This island, two-thirds of which was purchased by the town in 1591 and the remaining third in 1658, was dyked in 1795, and became the seat of a building which has been in succession a pest-house, a military hospital, a naval college, and a private industrial school. The Netherlands Steamboat Company established its workshops there in 1825; and in 1873 the Rotterdam Trading Company began to construct the harbours and warehouses which have been purchased by the city. The population of the commune of Rotterdam, which did not much exceed 20,000 in 1632, was 53,212 in 1796, 72,294 in 1830, 88,812 in 1850, 105,858 in 1860, 132,054 in 1876, and 148,102 in 1879-80. In 1870 the city contained 111,256 inhabitants, the suburbs 3341, and the ships 2478, and in 1884 the total, exclusive of the shipping, was 169,477.

Rotterdam probably owes its origin to the castles of Wena and Bulgerstein, of which the former was laid in ruins by the Hoek party in 1426. In 1299 Count John I. granted the "good people of Rotterdam" the same rights as the burghers of Beverwijk, and freedom from toll in all his lands. In 1597 a sixth extension of the town's area took place, and a seventh followed in 1609. Francis of Brederode seized the place in 1488, but had to surrender it to the emperor Maximilian in 1489. The Spaniards were in possession from April 9th to July 31st 1572, having gained entrance partly by treachery and partly by force (see Motley, *Dutch Republic*, ii.). It was at a meeting of the states held at Rotterdam in June 1574 that the relief of Leyden was determined on, though it was not till 1580 that the town obtained a vote in the assembly.

ROUBAIX, a manufacturing town of France, the second in population in the department of Nord, lies to the north-east of Lille on the Ghent Railway and on the canal connecting the lower Deule with Scheldt by the Marq and Espierre. Several tramway lines traverse the town and connect it with various manufacturing centres in the neighbourhood. The population of Roubaix, which in 1881 was 79,700 (the commune 91,757), is almost entirely manufacturing, and the trading firms of the town gave employment besides to an equally large number of hands in the vicinity. The weaving establishments number 300 (250 for woollen or woollen and cotton goods), the leading products being fancy and figured stuffs for waistcoats, trousers, overcoats, and dresses, velvet, barége, orleans, furniture coverings, and the like. The yearly production is estimated at £6,000,000, but the annual turnover exceeds £8,000,000, if all the industries of the place are taken into account. These include 70 wool-spinning mills, 12 cotton mills, silk-works, wool-combing establishments, carpet manufactories, dye-houses, soap-works, machine-works, and foundries. Roubaix possesses several interesting churches, a library and art museum, a most interesting museum of local industries, communal schools of art and music, an industrial school for weaving, founded in 1857, a chamber of commerce dating from 1871, a chamber of arts and manufactures, a board of prud'hommes, and an agricultural and horticultural society.

The prosperity of Roubaix has its origin in the first factory franchise, granted in 1469 by Charles the Bold to Peter of Roubaix, a descendant of the royal house of Brittany; but the great development of the manufacturing industries of the town and the growth of its population date from the French Revolution. The population, which in 1804 was only 8700, had risen in 1861 to 40,274, in 1866 to 65,091, and in 1876 to 83,000.

ROUBILLIAC, LOUIS FRANÇOIS (1695-1762), an able French sculptor. Born at Lyons in 1695, he became a pupil of Balthasar of Dresden and of N. Coustou. About the year 1720 he settled in London, and soon became the most popular sculptor of the time in England, quite superseding the established success of the Flemish Rysbrack.

He died on January 11, 1762, and was buried in the church of St Martin-in-the-Fields. Roubiliac was very largely employed for portrait statues and busts, and especially for sepulchral monuments in Westminster Abbey and elsewhere. His chief works in the abbey are the monuments of Handel, Admiral Warren, Marshal Wade, Mrs Nightingale, and the duke of Argyll, the last of these being the first work which established Roubiliac's fame as a sculptor. The statues of George I., Sir Isaac Newton, and the duke of Somerset at Cambridge, and of George II. in Golden Square, London, were also his work, as well as many other important pieces of portrait sculpture. Trinity College, Cambridge, possesses a series of busts of distinguished members of the college by him.

Roubiliac possessed much skill in portraiture, and was technically a real master of his art, but unhappily he lived at a time when it had reached a very low ebb. His figures are uneasy, devoid of dignity and sculptural breadth, and his draperies are treated in a manner more suited to painting than sculpture. His excessive striving after dramatic effect takes away from that repose of attitude which is so necessary for a portrait in marble. His most celebrated work, the Nightingale monument, in the north transept of Westminster Abbey, a marvel of technical skill, is only saved from being ludicrous by its ghastly hideousness. On this the dying wife is represented as sinking in the arms of her husband, who in vain strives to ward off a dart which Death is aiming at her. The lower part of the monument, on which the two portrait figures stand, is shaped like a tomb, out of the opening door of which Death, as a half-veiled skeleton, is bursting forth. Wonderful patience and anatomical realism are lavished on the marble bones of this hideous figure, and the whole of the grim conception is carried out with much skill, but in the worst possible taste. The statue of Handel in the south transept is well modelled, but the attitude is affected and the face void of any real expression. It is a striking proof of the degraded taste of the age that these painful works when first set up were enthusiastically admired.

ROUCHER, JEAN ANTOINE (1745-1794), a French poet, to whom a melancholy fate and some descriptive verse equal to anything written during at least three-quarters of a century by any of his countrymen except André Chénier, gave some reputation, was born on February 17, 1745 at Montpellier, and perished by the guillotine at Paris on July 25, 1794. He wrote an epithalamium on Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, gained the favour of Turgot, and obtained a salt-tax collectorship. His main poem was entitled *Les Mois*; it appeared in 1779, was praised in MS., damned in print, and restored to a just appreciation by the students of literature of the present century. It has the drawbacks of merely didactic-descriptive poetry on the great scale, but much grace and spirit in parts. Roucher was by no means anti-revolutionary, but ill-luck and perhaps his unpopular employment made him a victim of the Revolution. He lay in prison for nearly a year before his death, and went to it on the same tumbril with Chénier. The malicious wit of Rivarol's *mot* on the ill-success of *Les Mois*, "C'est le plus beau naufrage du siècle," is not intelligible unless it is said that one of the most elaborate passages describes a shipwreck.

ROUEN, a city of France, the ancient capital of Normandy, and now the administrative centre of the department of Seine Inférieure, the seat of an archbishopric and a court of appeal, and the headquarters of the third corps d'armée, stands on a level site on the right bank of the Seine in 49° 26' N. lat. and 1° 6' E. long. at the point where it is joined by the Aubette and

the small Rivière de Robec; it has also crept some distance up the hills which enclose the valley on the right, and has an extension on the plain on the left bank. The faubourgs by which it is surrounded are, reckoning from the east, Martainville (on the left bank of the Robec), St Hilaire, Beauvoisine, Bouvreuil, and Cauchoise; and the portion which lies on the left bank of the Seine is known as the Faubourg St Sever. Between the old town and the faubourgs runs a line of boulevards. Communication between the two banks of the river is maintained by ferry-boats and by two bridges; the upper bridge, a stone structure, is divided into two parts by the Lacroix island and decorated by a statue of Corneille; the lower is an iron suspension bridge which opens in the middle to let masted vessels pass. The railway from Havre to Paris crosses the Seine a little above Rouen, and having passed by a tunnel under the higher quarters of the city reaches a station on the north at a distance of 87 miles from Paris and 55 from Havre. Another station at Martainville is the terminus of the line from Rouen to Amiens; and at St Sever are those of the lines to Paris and to Orleans by Elbeuf. Since about 1860 wide streets have been driven through the old town, and tramway lines now traverse the whole city and its environs. Rouen, which is 78 miles from the sea, stands fourth in the list of French ports, coming next to Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux. Embankments constructed along the lower Seine have forced the river to deepen its own channel, and the land thus reclaimed has more than repaid the expenses incurred. The port is now accessible to vessels drawing 21 feet of water, and by means of easy dredgings this will be increased to from 25 feet to 28 according to the tide. The expansion of the traffic as the improvements have advanced is shown by the following returns: whereas in 1856 the number of vessels entered and cleared was 6220, with an aggregate burden of 570,314 tons, the corresponding figures were 4511 and 748,076 in 1876, and 5189 and 1,438,055 in 1880. What is now wanted is an increased amount of quay accommodation, the old line of quays scarcely exceeding 1 mile in length. The building of new quays and repairing-docks for large vessels is in active progress; the port is being dredged and deepened; and schemes are under consideration for a slip, a petroleum dock, and corn elevators.<sup>1</sup> Rouen has regular steamboat communication with Bordeaux, Spain, Algeria, London, Hull, Goole, Plymouth, Bristol, and Canada. A sunken chain allows boats to be towed up to Paris and beyond.

The population of the six cantons of Rouen in 1881 was 105,906, but if the suburbs are included the figure may be stated at about 150,000.

The imports landed at Rouen include cottons, wheat, maize, and petroleum from America; coal and iron from England; marble, oils, wines, and dried fruits from Italy; wines, wools, ores, and metals from Spain; grain and wool from the Black Sea; grapes from the Levant; rice from India; coffee from the French colonies; oil seeds, timber, dyewoods, foreign textile fabrics, Dutch cheese, &c. The articles of export comprise grain, table fruits, oil-seeds and oilcake, sugar, olive oil, palm oil, timber, hemp, linen, and wool, marble, granite, hewn stone, plaster and building materials, sulphur, coal, pig-iron, steel, copper, lead, zinc, salt, dyestuffs and other chemical products, wines, brandy, ciders, earthenware and glassware, machinery, packing-paper, &c.

Cotton spinning and weaving are carried on in the town, and especially the manufacture of *rouenneries* (cotton fabrics woven with dyed yarn). In this connexion the department of Seine Inférieure gives employment to 200,000 workmen, most of them in Rouen and

<sup>1</sup> See De Coene, *Congrès de l'Association Française pour l'avancement des sciences*; Rouen, 1883.



its neighbourhood, and makes use of 30,000 tons of cotton annually. In 1876 there were in the Rouen district 1,099,261 spindles engaged in cotton-spinning, and 9251 power-looms. Hand-loom weaving is prosecuted (mainly in the country districts) by 13,000 workmen. In the *rouennerie* department 190 manufacturers were engaged, producing annually to the value of £2,400,000. In the manufacture of printed cotton and woollen goods 22 establishments and 5000 workmen are employed. The annual production of printed calico amounts to 1,000,000 pieces, each 105 metres (about 115 yards) long; 22 establishments with 700 workmen are devoted to the dyeing of cotton cloth, and 32 establishments with 1200 workmen to the dyeing of cotton thread, the industry being specially favoured by the quality of the water of Rouen. There are also 3 soap works, 7 chemical works, manufacturing soda, vitriol, and dyestuffs, an 10 iron foundries. Engineering works manufacture steam-engines, spinning-machines, and weaving-looms, agricultural machines, sewing-machines, &c., which are sold throughout France and exported to other countries to a total value of £360,000. There is an establishment at Déville for refining copper and manufacturing copper pipes. Other works at Rouen are distilleries, oil mills, bleacheries and cloth-dressing establishments, tanneries, and ship-building yards. The town is also famous for its confectionery, especially *sucres de pomme*. Among the public institutions are extensive poorhouses (1800 beds in the *hospice général*), several theatres, a public library (118,000 volumes and 2500 MSS.), a theological faculty, a preparatory school of medicine and pharmacy, a preparatory school for higher instruction in science and literature, and schools of agriculture, botany, and forestry, painting and drawing schools, &c. Besides the Grand Cours, which runs along the bank of the Seine above the town and is lined with magnificent elms, the public promenades comprise the Cours Boieldieu, with the composer's statue, the Solferino garden in the heart of the town, and the botanical gardens at St Sever. (G. M.E.)

*History.*—Ratuma or Ratumacos, the original name of Rouen, was modified by the Romans into Rotomagus, and by the writers of mediæval Latin into Rodomun, of which the present name is a corruption. Under Cæsar and the early emperors the town was the capital of the Vellocassians, a people of secondary rank, and it did not attain to any eminence till it was made the centre of Lugdunensis Secunda at the close of the 3d century, and a little later the see of an archbishop. Rouen was largely indebted to its first bishops—from St Mello, the apostle of the region, who flourished about 260, to St Remigius, who died in 772. Ten or twelve of those prelates have the title of saints; they built in their city many churches, and their tombs became in turn the origin of new sanctuaries, so that Rouen was already, at that early period, what it has remained to the present time, and in spite of its political character—a religious city full of ecclesiastical monuments. From this period there has been preserved the precious crypt of St Gervais, which contains the tomb of the second bishop of Rouen, St Avitian. Under Louis "le Debonnaire" and his successors Normans several times sacked the city, but the conversion of Rollo in 912 made Rouen the capital of Normandy, and raised it to a greater degree of prosperity than ever. The first Norman kings of England rather neglected Rouen in favour first of Caen and afterwards of Poitiers, Le Mans, or Angers; but the monasteries, the local trade and manufactures, and the communal organization, which the people of Rouen had exacted from their sovereigns in 1145, maintained a most flourishing state of affairs, indicated by the rebuilding of several sumptuous churches, and notably of the great abbey which had been erected in the 5th century by St Victrix, and afterwards took the name of St Ouen from the bishop whose tomb it contained. Of this restoration there remains in the present building a small apse of two stories, the only Norman fragment of any importance preserved by the ancient capital of Normandy. The union of this province to

France by Philip Augustus in 1204 did no damage to the prosperity of Rouen, although its inhabitants submitted to their new master only after a siege of nearly three months. To this period belong, if not the commencement, at least the rapid erection of the most important building in the town, the cathedral of Notre Dame, whose vast pile, erected between 1200 and 1220 by an architect called Ingelram or Enguerrand, underwent so many alterations, restorations, and extensions that it took its final form only in the 16th century. It is in plan a Latin cross 427 feet in length, with aisles completely surrounding it and giving access to the three great chapels of the choir. The west façade and those of the transept are of extreme richness. Each was surmounted by two towers, of which only one—the Butter Tower (Tour de Beurre)—was completed. The western façade, frequently enlarged, embellished, or restored from its first construction to the present time, has two charming side doorways of the close of the 12th century, a great central doorway, a rose window, and countless arcades and Gothic pinnacles and turrets of the close of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th century. The width of the front is increased by the projection of the two towers: that on the left hand, the Tour Saint-Romain, was commenced about 1200, and raised to a greater height in 1465–1477; that on the right hand, the finer, has a height of 260 feet, and takes its name of Butter Tower from the fact that it was erected between 1485 and 1507 by means of the moneys paid by the faithful for permission to eat butter in Lent. On the north



Plan of Rouen.

side of the cathedral are various accessory buildings dating from the Middle Ages, and the Booksellers' Portal, corresponding to the Portal de la Calède in the south transept. Both portals are adorned with statues, and both, as well as the towers which flank them, date from the reigns of St Louis and Philip the Fair. Above the transept rises the central tower, which was rebuilt in the 15th and 16th centuries, and had before its destruction by fire in 1822 a height of 430 feet. The iron spire added in 1876, though unfortunately much too slender, has raised it to a height of 485 feet, and thus made it the highest erection in Europe after the spires of Cologne cathedral. While more harmonious in its style than the exterior, the interior of Notre Dame de Rouen presents nothing peculiar in its architecture, with the exception of the false gallery along the nave with passages running round the pillars; but the artistic curiosities are numerous and varied. In the choir may be noted a fine series of 13th-century stained-glass windows, carved stalls of the 15th century, the tombs of the English kings Henry II. and Richard I., that of Bishop Maurille, who built the larger part of the present structure, an elegant Gothic staircase, and various tombs of archbishops and nobles.

Philip Augustus built a castle at Rouen, but it was rather a fortress than a palace, and the kings of France never treated it as a residence; a round keep called Joan of Arc's Tower still stands. On the other hand, nothing remains of the castle erected by Henry V. of England when he took possession of Rouen in 1418 after a sanguinary

guinary siege; he proposed making it one of his Continental residences, but it was never completed. It was in Philip Augustus's castle that Joan of Arc was imprisoned and tried, and one of the public squares was the place where she was burned alive in 1431. From that year began a series of attempts on the part of the French to recapture the town. Ricardville in 1432 and Xaintrailles in 1436 failed in spite of the secret connivance of the inhabitants. In 1449 a stronger and better-planned expedition was successful, and Somerset, the English commander, was obliged, in order to secure an honourable capitulation, to surrender the principal fortified places in Normandy. The English rule, though badly supported by the citizens, had not been without its influence on the prosperity of Rouen. It was then that the present church of St Ouen was continued and almost completed; the foundation was laid in 1311, but the choir alone had been constructed in the 14th century. In spite of the juxtaposition of the second and third or "radiant" and "flamboyant" styles of Gothic, the building taken altogether presents in its general lines the most perfect unity—a unity which even the modern addition of a façade with two bell towers has failed to mar, though no regard was had to the original plans. St Ouen is the largest church erected in France during the War of the Hundred Years; in length (450 feet) it exceeds the cathedral. The central tower, not unlike the Butter Tower, with which it is contemporary, is 265 feet high; the two new towers with their spires are somewhat lower. Apart from its enormous dimensions and the richness of its southern portal, St Ouen has nothing that need long detain the visitor; its style is cold and formal; the interior, bare and stripped of its ancient stained glass, was further despoiled in 1562 and in 1791 of its artistic treasures and of almost all its old church-furniture. The organ dates from 1630, and the rather handsome roodscreen from the 18th century. The close of the 15th century and the first half of the 16th—the reigns of Charles VIII., Louis XII., Francis I., and Henry II., and the episcopates of Cardinal Estouteville (1453–1483), Cardinal Georges d'Amboise (1494–1510), and his nephew of the same name (1511–50)—rendered Rouen for nearly a hundred years the metropolis of art and taste in France; and it was one of the first towns where the splendours of the Renaissance burst forth. At this time the church of St Maclou was erected, a building that can hardly be brought into comparison with the cathedral and St Ouen, but is justly celebrated for the value and variety of its artistic treasures, such as the carved work of the principal doors, partly executed by Jean Goujon, the beautiful stained glass, and an organ-loft reached by an open-work staircase. The spire, 285 feet high, is a structure of the present century. Beside the church is the old parish cemetery, called the Aître de Saint Maclou, surrounded by charming Renaissance galleries and famous for its *danse macabre* formed by a series of sculptured groups. Other churches of the same period—St Godard, St Patrice, St Vincent—are no less interesting from the profusion of their architectural details than from their magnificent 16th-century stained-glass windows. There are two glass windows in St Godard, and a regular collection in St Patrice; but the latter, though the most famous, are in the eyes of connoisseurs of less worth than the stained glass in St Vincent, due to two incomparable artists of Beauvais, Enggrand and Jean Le Prince,—the two principal subjects treated by them being the Gifts of Mercy and the Glorification of the Virgin. St Godard contains, besides, old frescos worthy of note. The church of St Laurent, no longer used for worship, and the tower of St André are both of 16th-century origin. At the same period the cathedral received great embellishments, the central flèche was erected, and the portals were decorated with new sculptures. Georges d'Amboise, the virtuous minister of Louis XII., chose the chapel of the Virgin for his place of burial; he caused his mausoleum, constructed after the plans of the architect Roland le Roux, to be composed entirely of marble, as well as his statue, which he ordered from Jean Goujon. Georges d'Amboise the second was, according to his desire, interred in his uncle's tomb, but his statue is of much less value. Near this tomb are two others erected for the lords of Brézé; both are very remarkable; the oldest belongs to the Gothic style; the other, the tomb of Diana of Poitiers's husband, is a Renaissance structure of the time of Henry II., but, contrary to what was long believed, contains nothing from the hand of Jean Goujon. Under Louis XII. the archbishops of Rouen also rebuilt their palace at the side of the cathedral; but in spite of the richness of its architecture this lordly mansion cannot compete with the "palace of justice" begun in the same year, 1499, when the exchequer of Normandy, which had been established at Rouen in 1302, was erected into a *parlement*, though the title was not adopted till 1515. This sumptuous building is in the Gothic style; but the Hôtel de Bourgtheroulde, which dates from the time of Francis I., is undisputedly of the Renaissance, and is justly celebrated for its bas-reliefs, the subjects of which are borrowed from two quite different orders of things—the allegories from Petrarch's *Triumphs*, and the interview of the Field of the Cloth of Gold between Henry VIII. and Francis I. Many other secular Renaissance buildings in Rouen bear witness to the great commercial prosperity of its citizens and to their keen appreciation of the

arts:—numerous private houses in stone and especially in wood; the gate of the great clock; and a unique structure, the "fierte" of St Romain, a sort of pulpit from which every year a person condemned to death raised before the people the shrine or fierte (*fenestrum*) of St Romain, and then received pardon and liberty. This splendour of the arts began to decline during the wars of religion; in 1562 the town was sacked by the Protestants, which did not prevent the League from obtaining so firm a footing there that Henry IV., after having vainly besieged it, did not obtain entrance till long after his abjuration. To the 18th century belong the exchange and the claustral buildings of the abbey of St Ouen, transformed into an hôtel de ville. Much more important works have been executed in recent times, but in great part at the expense of the historic and picturesque features of the town. On the other hand, handsome structures of various kinds have been erected in the interests of public utility or embellishment—churches, civil and military establishments, fountains, statues, &c.; and many old buildings have been carefully restored or completed. Rouen, moreover, has recently been provided with museums of antiquities, of fine arts, of ceramic art, of natural history, and of industry,—the first two being very important. During the Franco-German War the city was occupied by the invaders from 5th December 1870 to 22d July 1871, and had to submit to heavy requisitions. Among the famous men born at Rouen are the brothers Corneille, Fontenelle, the journalists Armand Carrel and De Villemeussant, the composer Boieldieu, the painters Jouvenet, Restout, and Géricault, the architect Blondel, Dulong the physicist, and La Salle the American explorer. (A. S.-P.)

**ROUGE.** This name is applied to various colouring substances of a brilliant carmine tint, especially when used as cosmetics. The least harmful of these preparations are such as have for their basis carthamine, obtained from the safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius*). The Chinese prepare a rouge, said to be from safflower, which, spread on the cards on which it is sold, has a brilliant metallic green lustre, but when moistened and applied to the skin assumes a delicate carmine tint. Jeweller's rouge for polishing gold and silver plate is a fine red oxide of iron prepared by calcination from sulphate of iron (green vitriol).

**ROUGET DE LISLE, CLAUDE JOSEPH (1760–1836),** one of the most noteworthy of those authors whom a single short piece of work has made famous, was born on 10th May 1760, at Lons-le-Saunier. He entered the army as an engineer and attained the rank of captain. He wrote complimentary verses pretty early, and appears to have been a good musician. The song which has immortalized him, the *Marseillaise*, was composed at Strasburg, where Rouget de Lisle was quartered in April 1792, and he is said to have composed both the words and the music in a fit of patriotic excitement after a public dinner. The piece was at first called *Chant de l'armée du Rhin*, and only received its name of *Marseillaise* from its adoption by the Provençal volunteers whom Barbaroux introduced into Paris, and who were prominent in the storming of the Tuileries. The author himself was unfavourably affected by that very event. He was a moderate republican, and was cashiered and thrown into prison; but the counter-revolution set him at liberty. Little is recorded of his later years, and he received no pension or other mark of favour till the accession of Louis Philippe. He died at Choisy on the 26th June 1836.

The *Marseillaise* (of which as usually given six-sevenths only are Rouget's) is so well known that no elaborate criticism of it is necessary. The extraordinarily stirring character of the air and its ingenious adaptation to the words serve to disguise the alternate poverty and bombast of the words themselves. As poetry the sixth stanza alone has much merit. Rouget de Lisle wrote a few other songs of the same kind, and set a good many of others' writing to music. He also produced a play or two and some translations. But his chief literary monument is a slender and rather rare little volume entitled *Essais en Vers et en Prose* (Paris, 1796). This contains the *Marseillaise*, a prose tale of the sentimental kind called *Adelaide et Monville*, and a collection of occasional poems of various styles and dates, from which the author's poetic faculty can be fairly judged. It is humble enough. Rouget was a mere follower of standard models, imitating by turns J. B. Rousseau, La Fontaine, and Voltaire, and exaggerating the artificial language of his time. *Tom et Lucy*, which turns on a romantic story of



the English army in America, he has contrived without in the least knowing it to make a pathetic subject supremely ludicrous. But he seems to have been a very well meaning and harmless person, and he had one moment of remarkable inspiration.

ROULERS, or ROUSSELAERE, a town of Belgium, in the province of West Flanders, on the Mandelbeke, a tributary of the Lys, 22½ miles south of Ostend on the railway to Courtrai. From time immemorial it has been the seat of a great weaving industry, which now produces both cotton, union, and linen goods; and it also manufactures in various other departments. The principal buildings are the town-house, the college, and the church of St Michel with its conspicuous Gothic tower. The population was 16,345 in 1874, and 17,219 in 1884.

Roulers is mentioned in 822 as Roslar and in 847 as Rollare. Baldwin VIII., count of Flanders, died in a house in the principal square of the town in 1120 on his return from the battle of Angers. In 1794 Roulers was the scene of a conflict between the Austrians and the French.

ROUM (RŪM) is the name by which the Arabs call the Romans, i.e., all subjects of the Roman power. *Bilād al-RŪm*, "the lands of the Romans," accordingly means the Roman empire. The parts of the old empire conquered by the Arabs were regarded as having ceased to be Roman, but the Western Christian lands were still called lands of the RŪm, without reference to the fact that they had in great part ceased to pay any allegiance to the "king of the RŪm," i.e., the Byzantine emperor. When Ibn Jobair takes a passage in a Genoese vessel he speaks of the crew as Romans; and in Spain a "RŪmīya" meant a "Christian slave-girl." Sometimes all Europe is included in the lands of the RŪm; at other times the northern nations are excluded; sometimes again the word means the Byzantine empire; and, finally, the kingdom founded by the Seljŭks, in lands won by them from Byzantium, is the kingdom of the Seljŭks of RŪm, so that RŪm comes to take the restricted sense of Asia Minor. So Abulfeda uses the term. Roumelia and Roumania in like manner mean no more than the "Roman country" in a special limitation.

Plate I.

ROUMANIA, a kingdom in the south-east of Europe between the Carpathians, the Pruth, the Black Sea, and the Danube. The Pruth and the Kilia mouth of the Danube now form the frontier with Russia. West of Silitria the Danube is the boundary between Roumania and Bulgaria, while to the east of that point the boundary is formed by an irregular line passing east by south to the coast about ten miles to the south of Mangalia. The territory thus shut off between the Danube and the Black Sea is known as the DOBRUDJA (q.v.), and differs in its physical features and products from the rest of the kingdom. It was given to Roumania at the close of the last Russo-Turkish War as a compensation for the territory of Bessarabia, east of the Pruth, which was then restored to Russia. The area of the kingdom is estimated at about 49,250 square miles, which is rather less than that of England without Wales. The greatest length of the kingdom is from east to west near the parallel of 45°, along which the length is about 350 miles. The line stretching from north-west to south-east between the extreme points of the kingdom is about fifteen miles shorter.

The crescent-shaped portion of the kingdom lying between the Danube and Pruth and the Carpathians is tolerably uniform in its physical features. The southern part of the area is a plain continuous with that of southern Russia. Towards the interior the surface rises gradually but slowly until we come to the spurs of the Carpathians. The Roumanian frontier on this side runs for the most part along the very crest of the mountains, which have peaks rising to from 6000 to 8000 feet and upwards. The lowest part of this plain is that which stretches along the left bank of the Danube, and this also

is the dreariest and least productive. Large tracts of it are marshy and subject to inundation, and even beyond the marshy districts the aspect of the country remains extremely uninviting. Agriculture is neglected; coarse grasses occupy large areas; and the most conspicuous feature in the landscape is probably a rude well, such as is seen in the pustas of Hungary and some parts of southern Russia, where the general aspect of the country is so like what we find here. Farther inland however, the appearance of the surface improves: agriculture becomes more general, trees (willows, alders, and poplars) more abundant; on the still higher ground nearer the Carpathians the outward signs of comfort and prosperity become more and more apparent; the vine clothes the hill slopes; plums, peaches, and southern fruits are grown in profusion; large forests of oak, beech, and elm reach to the hill tops, and various minerals form an important addition to the present and prospective resources of the country. At elevations too high for the foliage trees just mentioned these are succeeded by pines and firs, birches and larches, which crown the mountains to a height of 5000 or 6000 feet. Extensive as the plains of Roumania are, 40 per cent. of the entire surface is more than a thousand feet above sea-level, while the greater part of the northern (or Moldavian) half of the crescent varies from 300 to 1000 feet, almost all the rest of Moldavia being still more elevated.

The superficial geology of Roumania, so far as it is known, is extremely simple, at least on the left bank of the Danube. Quaternary deposits are spread over all the plains. Among these the most important is the yellow loess, which covers such large areas in Hungary also, and which in Roumania attains in places a depth of 150 to 300 feet. In certain parts the black soil of southern Russia extends into Roumania, and is important on account of its richness, though its depth is nowhere above 3 feet. Advancing inland one meets next with Miocene and Eocene deposits, until, in ascending the slopes of the Carpathians, Secondary, Primary, and crystalline rocks are seen to crop out in succession. The desolate plateau of the Dobrudja contrasts with the region on the left of the Danube in its geology as in other respects. Its basis consists of crystalline rocks, but these are covered with sedimentary formations of various ages. On the north this plateau, which is hilly and even mountainous, sinks down rather abruptly to the delta of the Danube, a congeries of alluvial marshes occupied chiefly by aquatic and marsh-loving birds.

Of the rivers of Roumania by far the most important is the Danube, which is navigable for large vessels throughout its Roumanian reach, the first obstruction to navigation, the celebrated Iron Gates, occurring just where it enters Roumanian territory. The breadth of the river is of some consequence in view of the fact that it is a frontier stream, and the marshes on the left bank have at least this advantage that they enable it to serve all the more effectually as a natural boundary. The plains on the left are traversed by numerous winding tributaries of the Danube, but of these the only one of importance as a means of communication is the Pruth, which is navigable for small grain-carrying vessels. The others—the Sereth, Jalomitzza, Dambovitza, Olta—are sluggish streams, often half-dry, but yet at certain seasons subject to inundations, which unfortunately occur at a time when the crops are so far advanced as to be liable to be much damaged. In consequence of this the Government has bestowed much pains on the regulation of these streams, and the works for this purpose are rendered further serviceable by the fact that the Roumanian rivers can be turned to account for irrigation.

The climate of Roumania is one of extremes as regards temperature. Winter and summer are almost equally trying. In the former season the thermometer may sink to -15° Fahr, while in the latter it may rise to from 90° to 95°. The mean temperature of spring at Bucharest is 53°, summer 72½°, autumn 65°, winter 27½°. Spring, however, scarcely exists except in name, the interval between the cold winter and hot summer being very short. The autumn, on the other hand, is long and is the most genial season of the year. It lasts to the end of November. Being continuous with the Russian plain, Roumania is exposed to the bitterly cold wind from the north-east by which southern Russia is also scourged. In Roumania this wind, known as *crivets*, blows on an average 155 days in the year, while a west or south-west wind, called the *anstru*, equally disagreeable for its scorching heat, blows on an average 126 days. The rainfall is not excessive. The number of rainy days in the year is about 74, or only about two-fifths of the number round London. The summer months are those in which the rains are most abundant. Snow is unfrequent (12 days in the year). As regards salubrity the low-lying plains near the Danube are the worst part of the kingdom. Marsh fever is there prevalent, and the tendency to suffer from disease is increased by the miserable character of the dwellings occupied by the peasantry of that district. The houses are mere pits dug out in the ground and covered over with sloping roofs formed of branches and twigs.

Three-fourths of the population are dependent upon agriculture. The plains covered by loess and black soil are admirably adapted for the growth of cereals, and of these the most important are maize, wheat, and barley. The methods of cultivation are to a large extent primitive and imperfect, but great improvements are taking place through the application of foreign capital to the development of the native resources. Improved agricultural implements of all kinds have been introduced of late years in great numbers: The old plough, which has a share resembling a lance head, which enters the ground horizontally and thus merely scratches the surface, is being rapidly superseded by ploughs of English and Austrian manufacture. These improvements, which have been greatly stimulated by the alteration in the status of the Roumanian peasantry brought about by the law of 1864, and likewise by the introduction of railways, have resulted in an enormous increase in the amount of the production of cereals. Roumania is one of the principal grain-exporting countries in Europe, and the increase in the production just alluded to is sufficiently well indicated by the figures given below relative to the exports of grain to the United Kingdom. The great variations in these figures, though obviously due in part to political causes, likewise serve to illustrate the chief drawback under which Roumanian agriculture labours—namely, the liability to drought.

Besides forming a valuable article of export maize furnishes the chief food of the people. The great body of Roumanians seldom eat meat except on feast days, and the favourite food is a dish called *mamaliga*, made by boiling maize-meal and flavoured with a little salt. It thus resembles the hominy of the Americans. In addition to cereals many kinds of vegetables, including garlic, melons, and cucumbers, are grown. Hemp and colza are also important products, and tobacco furnished a considerable article of export until it was made a monopoly of the state in 1872. As already mentioned, wine and numerous fruits are produced on the foot-hills of the Carpathians, but owing to neglect the products are greatly inferior to what they ought to be. Nothing, it is said, but care in the cultivation of the vine and the preparation and preservation of the wine is necessary to make Roumania a wine-growing country of the first rank. As it is, vines are estimated to cover only about 250,000 acres, or about 1½% of the entire surface. From plums the Roumanians extract a strong spirit known as *tsivica*, and it is chiefly for this that the plum-tree is cultivated.

The rearing of domestic animals is likewise an important industry, but it has not advanced so much of late years as the growth of cereals. The exports of cattle are almost stationary. Oxen are of much more importance than horses, being chiefly used in field labours. Buffaloes also are reared for the purpose, and are much valued for their strength. Sheep and cattle rearing forms the chief occupation of the sparse population of the Dobrudja.

About one-sixth of the total surface of Roumania is estimated to be covered with forests producing valuable timber trees. Oaks, firs, and beeches are said to be met with having a diameter of more than 8 feet at the height of 33 feet above the ground. The warm

summers and cold winters are favourable to the quality of the wood, which is hard and lasting. Unfortunately there is a good deal of recklessness in the way in which the forests are utilized, and they are said to be fast disappearing; but it is to be hoped that the influence of the College of Agriculture and Sylviculture at Ferestren, 2 miles from Bucharest, will help to put a check upon this improvidence, as it is without doubt contributing greatly to the promotion of Roumanian agriculture.

The mineral wealth on the Roumanian side of the Carpathians is considerable, but at present there are only three minerals that have any great industrial importance. These are rock-salt, petroleum, and lignite. The salt mines are a state monopoly, and two of them, at Ocna-Mare and Telega, are partly worked by convicts. The depth from which the salt is extracted nowhere exceeds 900 feet. The average quantity of salt sold annually is about 62,000 tons. Lignite is important inasmuch as it is used along with wood on the railways, as well as in brick and lime kilns. Coal is also found, in some places even at the surface, but, though one or two mines have been opened, the total production is insignificant. Ozocerite, or fossil wax, is frequently found in association with lignite, but is used only in small quantity by the peasantry. Among other minerals are anthracite, iron, gold, copper, lead, sulphur, cobalt, and arsenic; and there is little doubt that some of these at least might be made economically valuable if the resources of the country were adequately developed.

So far the manufacturing industries of Roumania are hardly Manu-worthy of mention. There are petroleum refineries, one or two sugar refineries, numerous steam-mills for grinding flour, besides large numbers of floating maize-mills on the Danube; but in addition to these there are only a few manufactories at Galatz.

From the account just given of the products of Roumania it Trade follows that the exports of the kingdom consist chiefly of raw produce, and above all of cereals, while the imports are mainly composed of manufactured articles. The countries with which the trade is chiefly carried on are Austria (with about 40 per cent. of the whole trade in 1883), Great Britain (about 30 per cent.), France (about 10 per cent.), Germany (about 8 per cent.), Turkey, and Russia. The foreign commerce of Roumania is centred in Galatz, which is situated at the bend of the Danube where the river once more turns eastward on reaching the northern extremity of the Dobrudja plateau. From this centre there is one line of railway leading into Russia, while others pass through the interior of Roumania and connect with the Austrian lines in the north and south of Hungary. The first Roumanian railway was that from Giurgevo to Bucharest, opened in 1869. In 1884 there were about 1000 miles of railway in the kingdom. The internal trade of Roumania is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews. It is greatly hampered by the existence of the octroi in all the large towns, almost all the necessaries of life as well as luxuries being taxed when introduced within the municipal boundaries.

See Samuelson, *Roumania, Past and Present* (London, 1882); Ozanne, *Three Years in Roumania* (London, 1878); Kanitz, *Donau-Bulgarien und der Balkan* (1874); and E. Roessler, *Romänische Studien*. (G. G. C.)

Statistics.

The approximate proportion of cultivated and uncultivated land Produced in Roumania is given in pogones (= 1¼ acres) as follows:—

Cereals, gardens, vines.....	4,945,708
Pasture and hay.....	7,693,910
Forests.....	4,029,947
Uncultivated.....	7,574,336

The annual yield of cereals of all kinds is roughly estimated at 15,000,000 quarters. The number of horned cattle in the country is about 3,000,000.

In 1883 the following were the values of the principal articles Imports and exports of import and export:—

	Imports.	Exports.		Imports.	Exports.
	£	£		£	£
Textiles.....	4,706,063	248,504	Minerals, pottery.....	455,510	12,760
Metals.....	2,926,576	73,196	Oils, fat, &c.....	374,337	5,992
Skins, leather.....	1,749,674	237,136	Cereals.....	281,377	6,902,280
Wood and manu- factures.....	754,754	323,372	Animals.....	159,420	465,022
Exotic products.....	713,000	24,080	Fruits, vegetables.....	62,846	171,331

The total imports of British home produce, mostly cotton goods, &c., and iron, into Roumania in 1883 amounted to £1,344,619, and the total exports, mostly barley and maize, of Roumania to Great Britain to £3,516,442.

There were in 1884 about 1000 miles of railway complete in the kingdom, and 3000 miles of telegraph lines.

The estimated population of the country is 5,376,000, including about 400,000 Jews and 200,000 Gipsies. About four and a half millions of the population belong to the Roumanian branch of the Orthodox Greek Church, and there are 114,000 Roman Catholics and 13,800 Protestants.



An official analysis of the occupations of the people gives the following results (the figures representing heads of families) :—

Agriculturists.....	684,168
Artisans and labourers.....	83,061
Traders.....	30,417
Officials.....	22,811
Professors and teachers.....	6,066
Medical and legal professions and druggists.....	995
Artists, musicians, and publicists.....	2,156
Priests, monks, and nuns.....	18,452
Various.....	125,815
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>973,941</b>

Of the larger cities Bucharest (Bucurest) numbered in 1876 221,805 inhabitants, Jassy 90,125, and Galatz 80,763.

In 1883 there were 2742 primary schools with 124,130 pupils, 8 normal schools with 830 pupils, and 54 high schools with 7993 pupils, besides the two universities of Bucharest and Jassy, containing 97 professors and readers and 705 students. It is estimated that about 1000 young men receive their university education abroad, mostly at Paris. There is also a ladies' college, called the Asyle Hélène from its founder in its present form, the Princess Helena Cuza, and accommodating 230 girls, many of whom are orphans. Amongst learned institutions the Roumanian Academy claims the first place, and excellent contributions on subjects of national and scientific interest will be found amongst its proceedings (*Analele Academiei Romane*, 1878 sq.). The academy building at Bucharest contains the national library of over 30,000 volumes and a fine archaeological museum containing many Old Dacian antiquities.

The peace strength of the permanent army consists of 1200 officers and 18,532 men, with 180 guns. Besides this, there are the territorial army, consisting of 120,000 men and 84 guns; the militia, consisting of thirty-two regiments of infantry; and finally the *levée en masse*. Every Roumanian, from his twenty-first to his forty-sixth year, is obliged to serve his time in one of the above categories. The total of the Roumanian forces, exclusive of the *levée en masse*, amounts to about 150,000 men and 288 guns.

#### Medieval and Modern History of Walachia and Moldavia.

Roumania is the name officially adopted by the united kingdom that comprises the former principalities of Walachia and Moldavia. In its native form it appears simply as "Romania," representing the claim to Roman descent put forward by its inhabitants. These call themselves "Romani" or "Rumeni," but by their neighbours, Slavonic, Greek, Magyar, and German, they are universally known by one or other form of the word "Vlach." As, however, this Vlach or Rouman race occupies a far wider area than that included in the present Roumanian kingdom, it may be convenient to postpone the vexed questions connected with its origin, migrations, and distribution for more general treatment under the heading VLACHS, and to confine ourselves on this occasion to Roumania proper—the country between the Carpathians, the Lower Danube, and the Black Sea. It may be sufficient here to observe that, according to the concurrent accounts from various sources, the great plains of the later Walachian and Moldavian principalities were first occupied by an immigrant Rouman population coming from the Carpathian lands and the present Transylvania in the early Middle Ages. According to the Russian Nestor and the earliest Hungarian chroniclers, the Carpathian region, including tracts of eastern Hungary, were occupied by a Rouman ("Roman") population at the time of the Magyar invasion in the 9th century. On the other hand, the meagre annals of the plains that lie on the left bank of the Lower Danube are exclusively occupied till at least the 11th century with Slovenes, Petchenegs, Cumans, and Bulgarians. Whatever title the Carpathian Roumans may have to be considered the descendants *in situ* of the Romanized provincials of Trajan's Dacia, it seems fairly ascertained that the present extension of this easternmost branch of the Latin peoples over the Walachian and Moldavian plains is due to a colonizing movement from the Alpine regions to the west, effected for the most part in the 12th and succeeding centuries.

*Walachia.*—For the early history of the Walachian (Valachian, or Wallachian) principality the native sources are late and untrustworthy. These sources really reduce themselves to a single chronicle, a part of which appears to have been drawn up in the 16th century in Bulgaro-Slovene, and of which two Rouman translations have seen the light. This "History of the Rouman land since the arrival of the Roumans" (*Istoria țerei Romanesci de cândă au descălităta Romanii*) gives a precise account of the founding of the Walachian state by Radul Negru, voivode of the Roumans of Fogaras in Transylvania, who in 1290 descended with a numerous people into the Transalpine plain and established his capital first at Cimpulungu and then at Argish. Radul dies in 1314 and is succeeded by a series of voivodes whose names and dates are duly given; but this early chapter of Walachian history has been

rudely handled by Roesler in his essay on the oldest history of the Walachian voivodeship (*Romänische Studien*, p. 261 sq.). The so-called "Chronicle of Hurul" is a modern forgery, and our only real authorities for the beginnings of Roumanian history are Hungarian, Polish, and Byzantine.

In 1330 the voivode Alexander Bazarad or Bassaraba succeeded in inflicting a crushing defeat on his suzerain King Charles of Hungary, and for fourteen years Wallachia enjoyed complete independence. Louis the Great succeeded for a while in restoring the Hungarian supremacy, but in 1367 the voivode Vlad or Vladislav inflicted another severe defeat on the Hungarians, and succeeded for a time in ousting the Magyar ban of Severin and thus incorporating Little Walachia, the country west of the Aluta, in his dominions. Subsequently, in order to retain a hold on the loyalty of the Walachian voivode, the king of Hungary invested him with the title of duke of Fogaras and Omlas, Rouman districts situate in Transylvania, and this investiture seems to have left its impress on the traditional account of Radul Negru.

Under the voivode Mircea (1383-1419), whose prowess is still celebrated in the national folk-songs, Walachia played for a while a more ambitious part. This prince, during the earlier part of his reign, sought a counterpoise to Hungarian influence in the close alliance with King Vladislav Jagiello of Poland. He added to his other titles that of "count of Severin, despot of the Dobrudja, and lord of Silistria," and both Widin and Sistov appear in his possession. A Walachian contingent, apparently Mircea's, aided the Servian Kniaz Lazar on the fatal field of Kosovo; later he was led by the force of circumstances to ally himself with his former enemy Sigismund of Hungary against Bajazet, and in 1396 shared with him the disaster of Nikopolis. Bajazet subsequently invaded and laid waste a large part of Walachia, but the voivode succeeded in inflicting considerable loss on the retiring Turks, and the capture of Bajazet by Timur in 1402 gave the country a reprieve. In the internecine struggle that followed amongst the sons of Bajazet, Mircea espoused the cause of Musa; but, though he thus obtained for a while considerable influence in the Turkish councils, this policy eventually drew on him the vengeance of Sultan Mahomet I., who succeeded in reducing him to a tributary position.

During the succeeding period the Walachian princes appear alternately as the allies of Hungary or the creatures of the Turk. In the later battle of Kosovo of 1448, between Hunyadi and Sultan Murad, the Walachian contingent treacherously surrendered to the Turks, but this did not hinder the victorious sultan from massacring the prisoners and adding to the tribute a yearly contribution of 3000 javelins and 4000 shields. In 1453 Constantinople fell; in 1454 Hunyadi died; and two years later the sultan invaded Walachia to set up Vlad IV., the son of a former voivode. The Vlad father of this Vlad had himself been notorious for his ferocity, but his son, during his Turkish sojourn, had improved on his father's example. He was known in Walachia as "Dracul," or the Devil, and has left a name in history as Vlad the Impaler. The stories of his ferocious savagery exceed belief. He is said to have feasted amongst his impaled victims. When the sultan Mahomet, infuriated at the impalement of his envoy, the pasha of Widin, who had been charged with Vlad's deposition, invaded Walachia in person with an immense host, he is said to have found at one spot a forest of pales on which were the bodies of men, women, and children. The voivode Radul, who was now substituted for this monster by Turkish influence, was constrained to pay a tribute of 12,000 ducats.

The shifting policy of the Walachian princes at this time is well described in a letter of the Hungarian king Matthias to Casimir of Poland. "The voivodes," he writes, "of Walachia and Moldavia fawn alternately upon the Turks, the Tatars, the Poles, and the Hungarians, that among so many masters their perfidy may remain unpunished." The prevalent laxity of marriage, the frequency of divorce, and the fact that illegitimate children could succeed as well as those born in lawful wedlock, by multiplying the candidates for the voivodeship and preventing any regular system of succession, contributed much to the internal confusion of the country. The elections, though often controlled by the Divan, were still constitutionally in the hands of the boiars, who were split up into various factions, each with its own pretender to the throne. The princes followed one another in rapid succession, and a large proportion met with violent ends. A large part of the population led a pastoral life, and at the time of Verantius's visit to Walachia in the early part of the 16th century the towns and villages were built of wood and wattle and daub. Tirgovist alone, at this time the capital of the country, was a considerable town, with two stone castles. Nagul Bassaraba, who succeeded in 1512, was a great builder of monasteries, and, besides erecting a monastic church at Argish, which he coated with white marble, and a new cathedral at Tirgovist, adorned Mount Athos with his pious works. He transferred the direct allegiance of the Walachian Church to Constantinople. On Nagul's death, however, in 1521, the brief period of comparative prosperity which his architectural works attest was tragically interrupted, and it seemed for a time