

M	EARLY NORTH SEMITIC	PHOENICIAN	EARLY HEBREW (GEZER)	EARLY GREEK	CLASSICAL GREEK	ETRUSCAN		EARLY LATIN	CLASSICAL LATIN
	𐤌	𐤌	𐤌	𐤌	𐤌	Early	Classical	𐤌	M
						𐤌	𐤌		
CURSIVE MAJUSCULE (ROMAN)	CURSIVE MINUSCULE (ROMAN)	ANGLO-IRISH MAJUSCULE	CAROLINE MINUSCULE	VENETIAN MINUSCULE (ITALIC)	N. ITALIAN MINUSCULE (ROMAN)				
𐌛	𐌛	𐌛	𐌛	𐌛	𐌛				

A. C. SYLVESTER, CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND

The development of the letter M is illustrated in the chart above, beginning with the early North Semitic letter. The evolution of the majuscule (capital) M is shown at top; that of the minuscule (lowercase) at bottom.

**M**, the 13th letter (and the tenth consonant) of the English alphabet and of other west European alphabets derived from the Latin. It also was the 13th letter of the ancient North Semitic and Etruscan alphabets, but the 12th of the Greek and Latin alphabets. A labial (lip) consonant, sounded as in "my," "summer," and "him," the letter is spelled "em." In printing, the width of the capital **M** (em quad) is used to indicate a space width, as for a dash.

The shape of the letter derives from the early North Semitic and Phoenician forms, from which the Greek **M** (mu) evolved. Through the Etruscans, the Greek form was taken over by the Romans and handed down to the present-day alphabet. In Latin writing of the 1st century A. D., as seen in wall inscriptions and waxed tablets of Pompeii, a more or less vertical four-stroke letter (𐌛) was preferred. In Latin cursive writing, which appears from the 3d century A. D. onward, the letter has the rounded shape that is characteristic of the printed lowercase *m*. The modern cursive majuscule and minuscule assumed a similar form.

In medieval handwriting the letter *m* was commonly omitted, and its sound was indicated by a horizontal stroke over the preceding letter. Thus the word *exemplum* would be written *ex*

*ēplū*. This practice survived well into the 17th century.

The letter *m* is a common abbreviation. The capital **M** stands for such words as "Majesty," "Marquis," "Monsieur" (French salutation), "Master," "Monday," and "March." It is also used for the number 1,000 (Roman numeral *M*). Among abbreviations for the lowercase *m* are "medieval," "middle," "medium," "meter" (metric system), "meridian" and "noon" (from the Latin *meridies*), "made," and "mark" (German monetary system).

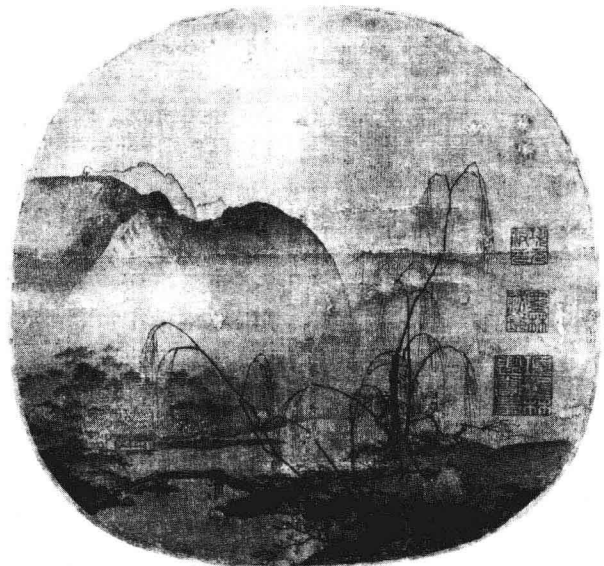
DAVID DIRINGER

Author of "The Alphabet"

Further Reading: See the bibliography for ALPHABET.

**MA YÜAN**, mä' yü-än' (c. 1160–after 1225), Chinese painter, a leading master in the Southern Sung Imperial Painting Academy in Ch'ien-t'ang (modern Hangchow), Chekiang province. The Ma family, originally from Ho-chung, Shansi, served the Sung emperors as court painters for five generations. Ma Yüan was of the fourth generation, and his son, Ma Lin, was the last of the line. The term Ma-Hsia School unites the family name with that of a contemporary family of court painters, led by Hsia Kuei, to designate the artistic achievement of the academy. As the basis of the later academic tradition in

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The Chinese artist Ma Yüan painted *Landscape with Bridge and Willows* in the shape of a small fan. (Museum of Fine Arts, Boston)

China, the Ma-Hsia style was revived during the Ming dynasty (1368–1644) and inspired a flourishing school of landscape painting in Japan.

Ma Yuan's art developed from that of the influential earlier court painter Li T'ang and from the family tradition. His painting is lyric and suggestive, usually small in scale, and aimed at crystallizing a poetic mood or image. Tense compositions are deliberately limited to a few dramatic motifs—one or two trees, some rocks, the shadow of distant hills, a traveler—within a diagonal organization emphasizing empty space, atmosphere, and season. The technique is precise and sharp, with rock surfaces like ax cuts, silhouetted trees in black ink, and subtly graded inkwash conveying distant mist. Color is used sparingly, mainly in the figures and foreground details. Ma Yuan's quiet, intimate paintings, usually in the form of a small fan, album leaf, or handscroll, convey a mood of concentration on all that is fleeting in human life, and of regret at its passing.

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**MAASTRICHT**, mäs-trikht', a city in the Netherlands and capital of the province of Limburg. Located on the Maas River in the southeastern "appendix" of the country, it is enclosed on the west and south by the Belgian frontier, which is only 2 miles (3 km) from the center of the city. Maastricht is a port, linked downstream with the sea by the Juliana Canal and upstream with the Belgian Albert Canal and the Belgian city of Liège. The city has extensive industrial areas where paper, rubber goods, and cement are manufactured.

Maastricht bears little resemblance to the traditional Dutch city of the lowlands. It lies in the Maas Valley flanked by hills. The 362-foot (110-meter)-high Pietersberg overlooks it on the south and is crowned by an old fort and honeycombed with tunnels and quarries. Situated at a point where the Romans forded the Maas, Maastricht occupies a setting much like that of Cologne on the Rhine River. The city lies on the river's west bank. A bridgehead settlement (Wyck) on the east bank is the site of a railway station and yards.

The city has preserved a picturesque section of its wall and ramparts, which survived the Spanish siege of 1579 and French assaults in 1673, 1748, and 1794. The center of the city is built around two fine squares, the marketplace and the Vrijthof. The town hall, or Stadhuis, completed in the 17th century, stands in the marketplace. The Vrijthof is dominated by the Church of St. Servatius (St. Servaas Kerk), the Netherlands' oldest church, founded in the 6th century.

A section of the inner city has been restricted to the use of pedestrians and restored to create a delightful precinct of shops and houses. It is a truly international city, to which shoppers come from Belgian and West Germany as well as from other parts of Holland. Population: (1983) 112,605.

J. H. PATERSON  
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**MAAZEL**, mä-zel', Lorin (1930– ), American conductor, the first American to head the Vienna State Opera. He was born in Paris on March 6, 1930, of American parents, who returned with

him to Los Angeles, California, in 1932. He began to study the violin when he was five and while still a child took conducting lessons from an associate conductor of the Los Angeles Philharmonic. In 1939 Maazel conducted the National Music Camp Orchestra at the New York World's Fair.

When he was 15 and no longer a curiosity, his conducting career came to a temporary halt. He entered the University of Pittsburgh but continued to study the violin and conducting. From 1948 to 1951 he was an apprentice conductor with the Pittsburgh Symphony. He went to Europe on a Fulbright scholarship in 1953 and conducted orchestras there and in Latin America until 1960.

Maazel made his American debut as a mature conductor with the Boston Symphony in 1960. In 1965 he became musical director of the Deutsche Oper in West Berlin. In 1971, after having conducted the Cleveland Orchestra in two summer concerts, he succeeded George Szell as its musical director until 1982. He then served as director of the Vienna State Opera for the 1982–1983 and 1983–1984 seasons.

**MAB**, in British folklore, the queen of the fairies noted for her mischievous, but usually benevolent, influence in human affairs. The name in Welsh means "baby" or "child." Many authorities believe that Mab derived from Medb, the heroic queen of Connaught (Connacht) of Irish epic tales. Others link her with Dame Abonde of Norman fairy lore. Sometimes Mab shares the title of "fairy queen" with Titania, but the two are distinct figures.

In literature, Mab is celebrated by a number of writers. In Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* she is depicted as the "fairies' midwife," who drives her tiny chariot "athwart men's noses as they lie asleep" and brings to birth their secret wishes in the form of dreams. In Michael Drayton's *Nymphidia* she is the wife of Oberon and queen of the fairies. Queen Mab is also mentioned in John Milton's poem *L'Allegro*, Thomas Randolph's pastoral comedy *Amyntas*, and Robert Herrick's poetic collection *Hesperides*.

In Shelley's poem *Queen Mab* the traditional stuff of legend is the vehicle for a polemic against conventional political, economic, and religious institutions and offers a vision of a future life inspired by love.

**MABINOION**, mab-ə-nō'gē-ən, a miscellany of 11 tales comprising the earliest and best of Middle Welsh narrative prose. The collection has generally been known as *The Mabinogion* since Lady Charlotte Guest published her translation under that title in 1838–1849. "Mabinogion," however, is clearly a manuscript scribal error for *mabinogi*, and even in this form it applies only to four of the tales (the Four Branches): *Pwyll Prince of Dyfed*; *Branwen Daughter of Llŷr*; *Manawydan Son of Llŷr*; and *Math Son of Mathonwy*. Drawing on an earlier oral tradition, the Four Branches probably were first written in the late 11th century, and the earliest manuscript is of the early 13th century. Their gods are the gods of British tradition and their subject matter the residue of British mythology.

Of the other seven tales, *Culhwch and Olwen*, a medley of myth, folklore, and high-spirited fantasy, is the earliest extant tale to involve Arthur and his retinue. Linguistically,

*Culhwch and Olwen* predates the Four Branches, while the remaining tales are probably later.

*The Dream of Rhonabwy* is an ironic account, rich in parody, of an apocryphal event during Arthur's wars with the Saxons. *The Dream of Maxen Wledig* is a delicate short story about Maxen (historically, the usurper Magnus Maximus, who was proclaimed emperor of Rome by his troops in Britain in 383) and his love for the lady (or goddess) Elen. *Lludd and Llefelys* is an account of three magic afflictions that affected Britain during the reign of Lludd, son of Beli Mawr, and were removed through the counsel of Lludd's brother Llefelys.

The remaining pieces are a trio of Arthurian romances—*Peredur Son of Efrog*; *The Lady of the Fountain* (or *Owein*); and *Gereint Son of Erbin*—that correspond closely to poetic narratives by Chrétien de Troyes. The relationship between the Welsh and French romances has been much debated but not determined. It is clear, however, that the Welsh, despite continental coloring, do not derive from Chrétien.

PROINSIAS MAC CANA  
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**MABUSE**, mā-büz', Jan (c. 1478–1533/1536), Flemish painter, who was among the first to introduce elements of Italian Renaissance style into the art of the Netherlands. He was born Jan Gossaert or Gossart, probably in Maubeuge, Hainault, the town from which he is presumed to have taken the name Mabuse. Most of his paintings are signed in Latin as Joannes Malbodius.

Little is known of Mabuse's life before 1503, when he is listed as a member of the painters' guild of Antwerp. His work was in the somewhat affected style of the Antwerp mannerists until after he entered the service of Philip of Burgundy, the bastard son of Philip the Good, and traveled with him to Italy in 1508.

The new Renaissance interest in classical antiquity and in the study of anatomy and perspective deeply affected Mabuse. He began to paint subjects from mythology, such as *Neptune and Amphitrite* (1516; Staatliche Museen, Berlin) and *Danaë* (1527; Alte Pinakothek, Munich). The late Gothic canopies that shelter his early Madonnas are replaced in later paintings by elaborate architectural settings in perspective, as in *Madonna and Child Enthroned in a Renaissance Recess* (Prado, Madrid). Among his many portraits are three of the children of Christian II of Denmark (Hampton Court Palace, England), *Young Girl* (National Gallery, London), and *Cardinal Carondelet* (Louvre, Paris).

Mabuse accompanied his patron to Utrecht in 1517, when Philip was appointed bishop there. After Philip's death in 1524, he worked for other members of the house of Burgundy in Antwerp and in Middelburg.

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**MAC**, a Gaelic word meaning "son." Frequently contracted to *Mc* or *M'*, it was prefixed to personal names to form Irish and Scots surnames. *Mac* corresponds to *Ap* in Welsh names and to *O'* in Irish.

*Encyclopedia Americana* articles beginning with *Mac* or *Mc* are alphabetized letter by letter. Thus entries beginning with *Mac* follow those beginning with *Mab*, and those beginning with *Mc* follow those beginning with *Mb*.

**MACADAM**, mə-kad'əm, a general term for pavements or road surfaces made up of layers of crushed stone or gravel. Each layer is rolled until it is tightly packed. Various methods are then used to bind the stone particles together.

In the water-bound method, stone dust is rolled into the layer and water is added. The stone dust and water form a cement that binds the particles into a hard layer. Water-bound macadam, which does not stand up well under heavy traffic, is not suitable as the top layer.

In the penetration method, a heated bituminous binding material such as asphalt or tar is applied to the compacted stone layer. The binder penetrates into the layer. Fine-sized crushed stone is then rolled in. These stone particles are small enough to fit in the spaces between the larger stone particles. Penetration macadam pavements are flexible yet strong. See also **MCADAM**, JOHN LOUDON.

**MACADAMIA**, mak-ə-dā'mē-ə, several species of trees or shrubs of the protea family (Proteaceae), grown commercially for their edible seeds (drupes) called macadamia nuts. Macadamias are native to Madagascar and Australia, particularly Queensland, and are also called Queensland nuts and Australian nuts. They are cultivated in Hawaii, California, Florida, South Africa, Mediterranean countries, and other warm regions.

Macadamia trees grow from 50 to 60 feet (15–18 meters) high and have whorls of long, narrow leaves and long clusters (racemes) of pink or white flowers. The round, hard-shelled nuts grow in clusters and are covered with husks that split when they are ripe. The nuts are then gathered and opened by machine. Macadamia trees may be grown from seeds or by grafting, but usually are asexually reproduced from cuttings. The principal species is *Macadamia integrifolia* (formerly classified as *M. ternifolia*), but *M. tetraphylla* also is cultivated.

Macadamia nuts are covered with husks that split open when the hard-shelled nuts inside are fully ripe.

WERNER STOY/CAMERA HAWAII





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Above the city of Macao and its inner harbor stand the ruins of the Jesuit Church of St. Paul, built in 1602.

**MACAO**, mə-kou', a Portuguese dependency on the coast of southern China, 40 miles (65 km) west of Hong Kong across the Chu Chiang estuary. The last vestige of Portugal's colonial empire, Macao (Portuguese, Macau) consists of a peninsula and the islands of Taipa and Coloane to the south—a total of 6 square miles (16 sq km). The population is 97% Chinese. By an agreement between Portugal and China signed in 1987, the territory was to revert to China in 1999 as a "special administrative region" with its autonomy guaranteed for 50 years.

Macao Peninsula, 3 miles long and up to 1 mile wide (about 5 by 1.5 km), projects southward from Chung Shan Island of China's Kwangtung province. An old stone barrier, the *Portas de Cêro*, marks the frontier. The peninsula is hilly, most of the narrow coastal flatland having been reclaimed from the sea since 1912. The city of Macao, which is on the peninsula, has two ports: the Inner Harbor on the west and the Outer Harbor on the east. A bridge connects the peninsula with Taipa Island, and a causeway links Taipa and Coloane islands. The territory has a subtropical climate, with a rainy season between April and September.

Macao's most important sources of income are gold trading, gambling, and tourism. Gold ingots worth millions of dollars are imported legally and converted into more easily transportable forms for devious shipment to India, China, and Southeast Asia. As the "Monte Carlo of the Orient," Macao attracts thousands of Hong Kong residents and visitors to its casinos each year because gambling is prohibited in Hong Kong. The licensed gambling syndicate pays substantial taxes.

Founded as a trading center, Macao still has a flourishing trade with China, on which it relies for food, water, and inexpensive manufactures. The only primary industry is fishing. Major manufactures are textiles, toys, fireworks, footwear, porcelains, leather goods, and artificial flowers. After 1965 hundreds of new textile factories were established in Macao by Hong Kong industrialists because Macao, as an unimportant textile exporter, had been excluded from most

countries' import quota restrictions.

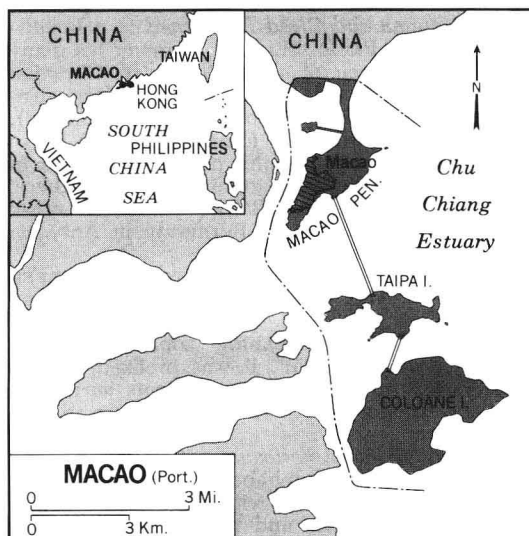
**History.** The name Macao comes from the Cantonese A-Ma-gao, or Bay of A-Ma, the patron goddess of seafarers. The Portuguese, who date their settlement as 1557, claim that their suppression of piracy had earned them the gratitude of Chinese officials and permission to stay in Macao. The Chinese claim that the Portuguese frequented Macao as early as 1535 and later bribed Chinese officials to let them use it as a trading post in return for an annual payment.

When China ceded Hong Kong to Britain in 1842, Portugal demanded Macao. In 1849, Portugal declared Macao a free port, abolished the Chinese customhouse, and proclaimed Portuguese sovereignty. China opposed these actions until 1887, when it formally ceded Macao to Portugal.

In 1976, Portugal granted Macao administrative, financial, and economic autonomy. Population: (1981 census) 292,300.

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Japanese macaques are highly social monkeys that resemble humans in many ways. Their behavior is strongly shaped by social class (especially among males) and kinship (especially among females). Many have learned to walk on two legs, especially when carrying something with their hands.



KOJO TANAK

**MACAPAGAL**, mā-kā-pā-gāl', **Diosdado** (1910–), president of the Philippines. He was born in Lubao, Pampanga, on Sept. 28, 1910. Despite extreme poverty, Macapagal studied law at the University of Santo Tomas as the protégé of Honorio Ventura, secretary of the interior. In 1940 he became commonwealth President Manuel Quezon's legal assistant. During World War II he served as intelligence liaison with U. S. guerrillas; his first wife died of malnutrition, and he himself barely survived the Liberation.

Under Manuel Roxas, first president of the republic, Macapagal assisted the department of foreign affairs in its initial claims to Sabah (North Borneo). In 1948, upon Roxas' death in office, his successor, Elpidio Quirino, appointed Macapagal second secretary to the Washington embassy. A year later Quirino asked him to run against a Huk candidate as representative from Pampanga. Macapagal won. In Congress he sponsored an agricultural credit law and a rural health law that sent mobile medical teams throughout the country. Macapagal was elected vice president in 1957 with a greater popular vote than was received by President Carlos Garcia, who represented a different party. In 1961 he defeated Garcia.

Macapagal's administration passed a land-reform code substituting leaseholds for sharecropping. His five-year socioeconomic program shifted investments from light industries to chemicals, steel, and industrial equipment. In 1963 he suggested levels of cooperation among Malaya, the Philippines, and Indonesia; but the proposed Maphilindo confederation disintegrated after the formation of Malaysia later that year.

In 1965, despite an earlier promise not to seek reelection, Macapagal ran against Ferdinand Marcos and lost. Nevertheless he was chosen to head the constitutional convention of 1971, which substituted a parliamentary for a presidential republic. Later he became an outspoken critic of the Marcos government.

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**MACAQUE**, mə-kak', any of about 12 different species of Old World monkeys in the genus *Macaca*, family Cercopithecidae. They range in size from about 15 inches (38 cm) to about 30 inches (76 cm) in head and body length. In some species large old males weigh up to 28 pounds (13 kg). Tails vary from absent to lengths exceeding that of the head and body.

The 12 species are usually grouped in seven subgenera, which are identified parenthetically in the following listing. (1) *M. (Macaca) syl-*

*vana*, the Barbary ape, which lives in the Atlas Mountains of northwest Africa and on the Rock of Gibraltar. (2) *M. (Lysosomes) arctoides*, the stump-tailed macaque of Manchuria and China; and *M. (L.) fuscata*, the Japanese macaque, widely celebrated in Japanese mythology and folklore. Both species in this subgenus have short tails. (3) *M. (Rhesus) mulatta*, the rhesus monkey, from northern India southeast to Malaya; *M. (R.) assamensis*, the Assamese macaque of southern China; and *M. (R.) cyclops*, the Formosan macaque. All three have medium to long tails. (4) *M. silenus*, the lion-tailed macaque of the southwest coast of India; and *M. (S.) nemestrina*, the pig-tailed macaque, from Borneo and Sumatra northward through the Malay Peninsula to northeastern India. (5) *M. (Zati) radiata*, the bonnet macaque of southern India, and *M. (Z.) sinica*, the Torque macaque of Ceylon. Both have tails longer than their head and body lengths. (6) *M. (Cynomolgus) irus*, the crab-eating macaque of the Malay Peninsula and adjacent islands to Java, also long-tailed. (7) *M. (Gymnopyga) maura*, the moor macaque, restricted to the Celebes Islands, with a very short, almost hairless tail. See also BARBARY APE; RHEBUS MONKEY.

E. LENDELL COCKRUM, *University of Arizona*

**MacARTHUR**, Arthur (1845–1912), American general, Congressional Medal of Honor winner, and military governor of the Philippines. He was born in Springfield, Mass., on June 2, 1845, the son of a lawyer and judge. He began his military service in 1862 at the age of 17 as a first lieutenant in the 24th Wisconsin Infantry and saw action during the Civil War in the Perryville, Stones River, Chickamauga, Chattanooga, and Franklin campaigns. He was awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor for bravery in the Battle of Missionary Ridge in 1863. By war's end he was a lieutenant colonel of volunteers.

MacArthur entered the regular army in 1866 and for the next two decades served in the West, taking part in several Indian campaigns. In May 1898, shortly after the Spanish-American War began, he was appointed brigadier general of volunteers and assigned to the Philippines. In 1899 he led a division against Emilio Aguinaldo, a leader of Philippine resistance to American rule. In 1900 he became military governor of the Philippines. He was made chief of staff of the U. S. Army, with the rank of lieutenant general, in 1906, and retired from active service in 1909. He was the father of General of the Army Douglas MacArthur.



UPI

MacArthur was renowned in World War II for his corn-cob pipe, gold-braided service cap, and dark glasses.

**MacARTHUR, Douglas** (1880–1964), American general, commander of Allied forces in the Southwest Pacific during World War II, and commander of the occupation of Japan and of United Nations forces in Korea.

**Early Years.** He was born on Jan. 26, 1880, at the U. S. Army barracks in Little Rock, Ark., the son of Arthur MacArthur, a professional army officer, and Mary Pinkney Hardy MacArthur, the daughter of an old Virginia family. His father's assignments required the family to move from one army post to another, frequently interrupting the boy's schooling. But Douglas worked hard at his studies, because he had set his heart on attending the U. S. Military Academy at West Point. In 1898 he passed the competitive examination for West Point and received an appointment as a cadet.

MacArthur entered West Point in 1899. His achievements there gave rich promise of an outstanding career. First in his class, he made a scholastic record that had not been equaled for many years. He won the coveted appointment of first captain, the highest military honor at the academy. He also played varsity baseball and managed the football team. Graduating in 1903, he was commissioned a second lieutenant in the corps of engineers.

MacArthur's first assignment was in the Philippines as an engineer. After a year there, he was sent to work in the Army Engineer Office in San Francisco. In 1905 he traveled to East Asia as an aide to his father, who had been appointed official U. S. observer of the Russo-Japanese War. Promotions came rapidly for MacArthur in the years before World War I, and by the time the United States entered the war in 1917, he had reached the rank of major.

**World War I.** MacArthur helped organize the famed 42d Infantry (Rainbow) Division, and the war brought him into national prominence for the first time. As the division's first chief of staff, with the rank of colonel, he sailed with his troops to France in October 1917. In August 1918, after being promoted to brigadier general, he became commander of the division's 84th Infantry Brigade. MacArthur led his brigade with an enthusiasm and dash that earned him the loyalty and affection of his men. Twice wounded, he received many decorations for his bravery in battle. He also won recognition for his skill in tactical and strategic matters.

**Postwar Years.** After the war, MacArthur was named superintendent of West Point, beginning his duties in 1919. He modernized the curriculum of the academy and raised its academic standards, while placing great emphasis on athletics.

In 1922 he left West Point. From then until 1930 he held various posts in the United States and the Philippines, which he came to regard as his second home. In 1925 he was promoted to major general, and five years later he was named chief of staff of the U. S. Army by President Herbert Hoover. At 50, MacArthur was the youngest man to have been appointed to this post.

MacArthur took office in the worst days of the Great Depression, when the American people were bitterly disillusioned with war. He spent a great deal of time and energy trying to convince Congress to appropriate adequate funds for his plans to reorganize the Army and make it more efficient. He achieved much of his program but was generally unsuccessful in his effort to strengthen air and armored units and to integrate them with the ground force.

MacArthur's most controversial action during his five-year service as chief of staff was his rout of the Bonus Army on July 28, 1932. About 15,000 men, most of whom were unemployed veterans of World War I, had streamed into Washington to demand payment of federal war bonuses. When the police were unable to handle such a large crowd, President Hoover ordered the Army to clear the veterans out of the capital. In full uniform, with his aide, Maj. Dwight D. Eisenhower, at his side, MacArthur personally carried out the order, routing the veterans and driving them from their camp. For many persons, such use of force created an image of MacArthur as a potential military dictator.

MacArthur completed his duty as chief of staff in October 1935. He was then appointed military adviser to the newly created Philippine Commonwealth. He retired from the U. S. Army in 1937 but continued as Philippine military adviser with the rank of field marshal. During this period he adopted the gold-braided hat, sunglasses, and corn-cob pipe that became his hallmark.

MacArthur was married twice, first in 1922 to Henrietta Louise Cromwell Brooks. This marriage ended in divorce by mutual consent in 1929. He married his second wife, Jean Marie Faircloth, in 1937. They had one son, Arthur, born on Feb. 21, 1938.

**World War II.** On July 26, 1941, as war with Japan threatened, the 61-year-old MacArthur was recalled to active duty as commander of the newly formed U. S. Army Forces in the Far East. Officials hoped that MacArthur's assignment would serve notice of American determination to halt Japanese aggression.

On Dec. 7, 1941, Japan began the Pacific war by attacking Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. About eight hours later, the Japanese bombed Clark Field, north of Manila in the Philippines. The Japanese landed large forces north and south of Manila on December 22. Three days later, MacArthur declared Manila an open city and moved to Corregidor, an island fortress off Bataan Peninsula at the entrance to Manila Bay. During the next two weeks, under heavy Japanese pressure, American and Philippine troops withdrew to Bataan, where they continued heroically to resist the Japanese for three months.

In March 1942, President Franklin Roosevelt ordered MacArthur and his family to go to Australia. Strategists felt that MacArthur was too valuable to be lost in the hopeless defense of the Philippines, which finally fell to the Japanese in early May. On the trip to Melbourne, MacArthur made his famous statement of determination. "I came through," he declared, "and I shall return." He received the Medal of Honor on March 25, and on April 18 was formally named Supreme Commander of the Southwest Pacific Area.

His first task was to protect Australia. Planning to cut Australia's sea-lanes to the United States, the Japanese sought to capture Port Moresby on the south coast of New Guinea. After the Japanese failed to take this objective by sea, they were stopped on land in September 1942 by Australian troops under MacArthur's command. The Allies then took the offensive and began a long and difficult campaign to drive the enemy out of New Guinea. By February 1943 the Allies had won control of southeast New Guinea and eliminated the threat to the sea-lanes.

MacArthur's victory in New Guinea was one of the first steps in a campaign that took his forces westward toward the Philippines. During this campaign, South Pacific naval units led by Adm. William Halsey were placed under MacArthur's strategic command. After advancing up the chain of the Solomon Islands, MacArthur's troops seized the Admiralty Islands and neutralized the powerful Japanese base at Rabaul in early 1944. They then moved along the northern New Guinea coast, bypassing and rendering ineffective large Japanese forces along the way.

On Oct. 20, 1944, MacArthur's forces invaded Leyte in the central Philippines. The general waded ashore with his troops, fulfilling his promise to return made more than two years earlier. On December 18, three days after his forces landed on Mindoro, he was promoted to the rank of five-star General of the Army. In early January 1945, MacArthur's army invaded Luzon, the main island of the Philippines, and by the end of February had recaptured Manila and Corregidor.

**Occupation of Japan.** On Aug. 14, 1945, after the atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Japanese accepted Allied terms of unconditional surrender. The next day, MacArthur was named Supreme Commander in Japan for the Allied powers. On September 2, at ceremonies aboard the battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay, he received the formal surrender of the Japanese.

At an age when most men retire, the 65-year-old general began a new career as commander of the occupation of Japan. Under his guidance, Japan moved from defeat to prosperity. He disarmed the military, established a liberal government, instituted land reform, and restored the country's shattered industry. He also abolished

the nobility and brought about other social changes that had an important effect on Japanese society by making it more democratic.

**Korean War.** MacArthur was still in Japan when Communist North Korea attacked South Korea on June 25, 1950. President Harry Truman ordered MacArthur to take command of a small American military mission stationed there and to provide U. S. air and sea support for the South Korean Army. On July 8, MacArthur was named commander of a UN international force established to repel the Communist attack.

The 70-year-old general faced a formidable task. By the time the first American troops arrived on July 1, the North Koreans had overwhelmed South Korean defenses. By early September they had forced the defenders into a small beachhead called the Pusan perimeter at the southeast tip of the peninsula.

On September 15, MacArthur executed a daring outflanking maneuver by landing troops at Inchon, west of Seoul. At the same time, the U. S. Eighth Army launched a massive counter-offensive from within the Pusan perimeter. The North Koreans fled toward the 38th parallel, the boundary between North and South Korea. By the end of the month, UN forces had recaptured most of South Korea. On October 8, UN troops crossed the 38th parallel and moved north toward the Yalu River—the boundary between North Korea and Communist China. UN advance units reached the Yalu on October 26.

**Dismissal from Command.** MacArthur's attempt to subdue North Korea ended in failure because of Communist China's entry into the war. The Chinese attacked in force on November 24 and forced MacArthur's army to retreat behind the 38th parallel. MacArthur began a counterattack in February 1951, but it proved indecisive and the Korean War settled into a stalemate.

MacArthur proposed various new measures to achieve victory, including bombing supply centers

MacArthur waded ashore on Leyte Island in October 1944, fulfilling his promise to return to the Philippines.

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Six months after their 1950 meeting on Wake Island, President Truman fired MacArthur from his command.

in Manchuria and “unleashing” the Chinese Nationalists on Taiwan against the Communist-held mainland. President Truman feared that such actions might ignite a larger war, and he rejected MacArthur’s proposals. The general then made public his disagreement with the president, and on April 11, 1951, Truman dismissed him from command.

MacArthur returned to the United States for the first time in 15 years. As he crossed the country from San Francisco to New York, he received a hero’s welcome. On April 19 he addressed a joint session of Congress. His speech, a stirring defense of his policy, closed with a line from an old army ballad: “Old soldiers never die; they just fade away.”

**Later Years.** But the old general did not fade away. MacArthur had become a leading figure in Republican politics. He became one of the party’s leading candidates for the presidential nomination in 1948. At the 1952 convention he delivered the keynote address and was again mentioned as a possible candidate. But the nomination went instead to his former aide, Dwight D. Eisenhower, whose command in Europe during World War II paralleled MacArthur’s in the Pacific.

MacArthur entered Walter Reed Hospital in Washington on March 2, 1964, and underwent three operations for an abdominal illness. On April 5 he lost the battle and died at the age of 84. President Lyndon Johnson declared a period of national mourning, and the general’s body lay in state in the rotunda of the Capitol. On April 11, MacArthur was buried with full military honors in a memorial built for him by the city of Norfolk, Va., his mother’s hometown.

**Assessment.** In an age when war had become increasingly complex, MacArthur showed a mastery over all aspects of his profession. He combined supreme self-confidence with unflinching courage. His unusual strategic sense and intuitive understanding of the enemy led him to make

insightful, often brilliant, wartime decisions. Impressive in appearance and dramatic in action, he demanded and received unquestioning obedience.

But the qualities that made MacArthur great were also the sources of his weaknesses. He was extremely egotistical and would tolerate no criticism. Remote and authoritarian, he seemed to lose touch with the common man. Although he insisted on complete loyalty from his subordinates, he often disagreed bitterly with his superiors.

MacArthur’s complex personality inspired both love and fear. His admirers gave him their wholehearted devotion. His critics seemed to find fault with almost everything he did. Few persons could be indifferent to this proud and colorful warrior. But no one could deny that he had served his country well during the period when it assumed leadership of the free world.

LOUIS MORTON, *Author of*  
“*War in the Pacific: Strategy and Command*”

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**MACASSAR**, mə-kas’ər, a conventional form of Makasar, the former name of the Indonesian city of Ujung Pandang. See UJUNG PANDANG.

**MACAULAY**, mə-kō’lē, **Dame Rose** (1881–1958), British author, who received the title of Dame Commander of the Order of the British Empire in 1958. Emilie Rose Macaulay was born in Rugby on Aug. 1, 1881. She studied history at the University of Oxford and spent much time living and traveling on the Continent. She died in London on Oct. 30, 1958.

Rose Macaulay’s most frequent theme was the disenchantment and pessimism of those who lived between the world wars. Her novels, always witty and clever, are generally satiric attacks on middle-class pretensions and false values. Such a work is *Potterism* (1920), her first to gain popularity. *Dangerous Ages* (1921) presents the problems that beset four generations of women. *Told by an Idiot* (1923) ridicules the foolishness of a typical English family. Her last novel, *The Towers of Trebizond* (1956), awarded the James Tait Black Memorial Prize, wittily combines religion, travel, love, adventure, comedy, and tragedy. Miss Macaulay’s critical works include *Some Religious Elements in English Literature* (1931) and *The Writings of E. M. Forster* (1938). Three volumes of her letters were published posthumously.

JANIS RICHARDI, *Coauthor of* “*The American Novel Through Henry James: A Bibliography*”

**MACAULAY**, mə-kō’lē, **Thomas Babington** (1800–1859), English historian, man of letters, and statesman, who was one of the leading figures of the early Victorian period. Adopting the philosophical and political outlook of 18th century English rationalism, he was convinced that philosophy and poetry must decline as analytical reasoning and science advance. In politics he



advocated gradual reform of existing English representative institutions as an antidote to forces of political reaction and revolution that threatened the stability of post-Waterloo Europe. He did much to shape and articulate English middle-class values, disseminating widely an interpretation of history that saw in material and moral progress the key to modern history and to the future well-being of nations. On immediate issues he assumed a position of leadership with regard to such liberal contemporary causes as the abolition of slavery, freedom of the press, civil rights for Jews and Catholics, and humane government for Ireland and India.

Macaulay's most lasting influence, however, was in the field of history. His five-volume *History of England from the Accession of James the Second* (1848–1861) was well received in America, as well as in England and the British colonies, and contributed importantly to the awakening of historical consciousness in the English-speaking world. Eminently readable, it narrated in clear and compelling prose the triumph of reason and liberty at the end of the 17th century, represented by William III, over the forces of superstition and tyranny, represented by the Stuart monarchy. Macaulay's *History* quickly attained the status of a classic and continued to be widely read both at home and abroad through the rest of the century. The famous third chapter, in particular, with its attention to cultural details that largely were ignored in earlier histories, brought a new dimension to historical writing.

**Life.** Macaulay was born on Oct. 25, 1800, at Rothley Temple in Leicestershire. His father, Zachary Macaulay, was a leading figure in the antislavery movement and a stern Evangelical Tory. Despite the rather dour tone of the household, Macaulay was able to indulge his delight in stories and games, giving early evidence of precociousness in a prodigious memory and omnivorous reading. He entered Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1818, and there he won prizes for both verse and prose and was active in a debating society. Also, as a result of exposure to radical political ideas associated with Benthamism, he broke with the Toryism of his father, settling upon the moderate, pragmatic liberalism that he espoused throughout his life. He was elected a fellow of Trinity in 1824 and was called to the bar in 1826, though he practiced little.

Macaulay quickly gained recognition after leaving Cambridge through essays contributed to the powerful *Edinburgh Review*, a Whig journal. He was first elected to Parliament in 1830, and speeches he delivered there on behalf of reform won the respectful attention even of opponents. In 1834, after his father's mercantile business had fallen into a precarious state, he accepted a lucrative post as a member of the supreme council for India, and while there (1834–1838) he played a major role in bringing about significant educational and penal reforms.

Upon returning to England, Macaulay was re-elected to Parliament in 1839 and served two brief terms (1839–1841 and 1846–1847) in the cabinet. He sat in Parliament, except for the years 1847–1852, until he resigned in 1856 because of ill health.

However, by the 1840's, Macaulay's absorbing interest had shifted from politics to literature. He published *The Lays of Ancient Rome* in 1842, *Critical and Historical Essays* in 1843, and volumes 1 and 2 of the *History* in 1848, and

volumes 3 and 4 in 1855. In 1857 he was raised to the peerage, as Baron Macaulay of Rothley, the first English man of letters to be so honored. Macaulay died in London on Dec. 28, 1859. The fragmentary fifth and final volume of the *History* appeared posthumously in 1861.

**Work and Thought.** Macaulay first won attention through his *Edinburgh Review* essays (1825–1844), of which he contributed 38 over a period of 20 years. Ostensibly reviews of contemporary literary or historical works, the essays often were directed at contemporary political issues and were highly polemical in tone. Two of the most celebrated are those on Milton (1825) and Bacon (1837), which gave him a reputation for hostility both to poetry and Platonic philosophy and earned him the label "apostle to the Philistines." His later essays on historical figures, such as those on Lord Clive (1840) and Warren Hastings (1841), were more detached and generally superior in style to the earlier essays, as were the five brief lives (1854–1859) that he contributed to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

Macaulay's parliamentary speeches lack the subtlety and depth of Burke's, but they have their own peculiar power, ranking not far below Burke's as examples of English oratorical eloquence. Macaulay's letters represent still another variant of a style that is perhaps unmatched in English for its clarity, directness, and vigor.

However, the work on which rests Macaulay's claim to enduring fame is the *History*. Despite some errors and important omissions, it remains a monument of historical writing, which never has been seriously faulted on its broad interpretation of the events it treats. Macaulay's powerful dramatic sense, evident in his remark that "I begin to see the men, and to understand all their difficulties and jealousies," informs the narrative, giving it a momentum and vividness comparable to a historical novel.

Macaulay's writings were collected in eight volumes in 1866 by his sister Lady Trevelyan and later reissued in a more expansive 12-volume edition in 1898. The two-volume biography of 1876 by his nephew George Otto Trevelyan is one of the great English biographies of the 19th century.

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**MACAW**, mə-kô', any of a group of tropical American parrots (genera *Ara* and *Anodorhynchus*) with powerful curved beaks, long tails, and usually brilliant plumage. The largest of the parrots, macaws may be as long as 36 inches (1 meter). They range from Mexico to Uruguay and Argentina, with at least 12 species in Brazil. Macaws live high in the trees of rain forests, feeding on fruits and nuts, which they crack with their powerful beaks.

Macaws are sometimes kept as household pets. Most specimens in captivity have been taken



RUSS KINNE/PHOTO RESEARCHERS

The great hyacinthine macaw (*Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus*), a large, deep blue parrot of the Brazilian region.

from nests in the wild and reared by hand to make them tame and gentle. Macaws that have been mistreated or captured as adults may be savage and can inflict serious wounds with their beaks. Some macaws learn to speak a few words in deep, guttural voices.

Species common in captivity include the red-and-blue macaw (*Ara macao*), brightly colored and the largest of the macaws, and the slightly smaller blue-and-yellow macaw (*A. ararauna*), less gaudy but strikingly beautiful in coloration. Other large species include the green-winged macaw (*A. chloroptera*), with a generally maroon body; the great green macaw (*A. ambigua*); and the great hyacinthine macaw (*Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus*). Smaller species, chiefly dull green in color, range down to the 13-inch (33-cm) noble macaw (*A. nobilis*).

**MACBETH**, mək-beth' (c. 1005–1057), king of Scotland. The hereditary *morraer* (chief) of the Moray district, he married Gruoch, the granddaughter of King Kenneth II, about 1032, and thus had a remote claim to the crown of Scotland. Turning against his king, Duncan I, he killed him purportedly in battle near Elgin, on Aug. 14, 1040, and seized the throne. He then yielded the northeast part of the country to his ally Thorfinn, Norse earl of Orkney, an enemy of Duncan's.

In 1050, Macbeth made a pilgrimage to Rome, perhaps to atone for his regicide. His reign is described in Scottish chronicles as a time of prosperity.

In 1054, Siward, earl of Northumbria, invaded Scotland on behalf of Duncan's son, Malcolm. Three years later, on Aug. 15, 1057, Malcolm defeated and killed Macbeth in Lumphanan, Aberdeenshire, and succeeded to the throne as Malcolm III Canmore. Shakespeare's play *Macbeth* is loosely based on the historical legends that grew up around the king.

**MACBETH**, mək-beth', a tragedy by William Shakespeare, probably written in 1605–1606 and published in the First Folio of 1623. *Macbeth*, the last of Shakespeare's four major tragedies, is not only the shortest of all his tragedies but also the darkest and most powerfully dramatic.

**Sources.** The dominant source for *Macbeth* is the second edition (1587) of Raphael Holinshed's *Chronicles of England, Scotland, and Ireland*. But the witches in the play, whom Holinshed described as "the weird sisters, that is (as ye would say) the goddesses of destinie or else some nymphes or feiries, indued with knowledge of prophesie," were also based on current witchlore and quite possibly on Reginald Scot's *The Discoverie of Witchcraft* (1584) and on King James I's *Daemonologie* (1597). James was a devout believer in the baneful existence of witches, and Shakespeare's combining the awesome weird sisters with the foul, bearded, and chanting hags of the play may reflect a desire to please the king, before whom, perhaps, the play was performed.

Shakespeare also did not depend entirely on the Macbeth story in Holinshed. Instead, he darkened what is known of the historical Macbeth's slaying of King Duncan by substituting the terrible murder of the earlier King Duff. Further, he transformed Banquo (whom James considered the origin of his line) from an accomplice of Macbeth to a virtuous foil and, with a comparable motive of pleasing the king—as well as sound dramatic ones—changed Duncan from a weak king into a saintly, venerable man.

**Plot.** Shakespeare's play is one of temptation, crime, and punishment, with the punishment brilliantly occurring before and during, as well as after, Duncan's murder. Macbeth, Thane of Glamis, and his fellow general, Banquo, are returning from victorious battle when they are confronted by the witches (who had opened the play in a brief scene of foreboding). These ambiguous creatures greet Macbeth as "Thane of Glamis," "Thane of Cawdor," and then "King hereafter." For Banquo they promise that "Thou shalt get kings, though thou be none."

Hardly does Macbeth hear the prophecy than he receives word from Duncan that he is now indeed Thane of Cawdor. So great is Macbeth's excitement that he writes instantly to his lady to tell her the news. While Lady Macbeth is reading the letter, she gets a message that Duncan is on his way to spend the night with them and resolves to spur on her too-kind husband to take advantage of the visit so that he might be king.

Macbeth is reluctant to murder his sovereign, his kinsman, and his guest—he almost tangibly experiences the horrors of the murder—but Lady Macbeth shames and fortifies him. She drugs the grooms in Duncan's chamber, whom they plan to blame, and Macbeth does the "deed." But in rapt terror, he comes back from the chamber with the daggers. Lady Macbeth then resolutely returns them and smears the grooms with blood.

While the Macbeths are trying to compose themselves, a drunken porter, in a scene of raucous humor, images himself (not without cause) as porter of hell-gate. He and the Macbeths hear a loud knocking on the door. It is Macduff, Thane of Fife, who went to waken Duncan, only to find the supreme horror of his murdered body. Macbeth, going to the chamber, slays the drugged grooms, and when he too vividly describes their "guilt" and the bloodiness of the body, his lady

faints. Duncan's sons flee, Malcolm to England and Donalbain to Ireland, and thus incur suspicion as the perpetrators of the crime.

Macbeth is presently crowned king and plans a banquet at which Banquo is to be the chief guest. Macduff refuses to come, and Banquo never reaches the banquet alive, for Macbeth has arranged with two murderers to kill him as he approaches the castle. Banquo's ghost, however, with ironic obedience, does attend the feast, taking Macbeth's chair as he is about to sit down. Almost equally painful for Macbeth is the news that Banquo's son Fleance has escaped the ambush, thus reminding Macbeth of the witches' haunting prophecy that Banquo's line, not his, shall inherit the crown.

The rest of the play is a nightmare for the criminals. Lady Macbeth becomes isolated from the man she has whetted to the deed, and Macbeth becomes a compulsive and fearful murderer and tyrant. Macduff has fled to England, where, after a scene in which his loyalty is tested, Malcolm, the true heir to the throne, asks him to join his army. In the testing scene, Macduff hears what the audience already knows, that Macbeth has butchered Macduff's family.

Meanwhile, Macbeth's fearful insecurity has taken a desperate form as he seeks out the witches and conjures them to tell him the future. They present him a scene in which apparitions tell him to "beware Macduff," that "none of woman born shall harm Macbeth," and finally that none shall vanquish him until Birnam Wood moves to Dunsinane Hill. Then they stage a procession of eight kings, with Banquo, significantly, at the end.

During her husband's desperate activity, Lady Macbeth, who had earlier said so confidently, "Leave all the rest to me," is now reported by her lady-in-waiting to be a chronic sleepwalker. In a great scene, Lady Macbeth appears before the lady-in-waiting and a doctor, carrying a light that is always by her. With open but unseeing eyes, she tries to wash her hand of the "damned spot," lamenting that all the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten her little hand, and, to the horror of the doctor, she relives the murder. He prescribes the ministrations of a divine, not a physician.

Presently word is brought to Macbeth of Lady Macbeth's death, presumably by suicide. But he can respond only dully, speaking with terrible hopelessness of life as "a tale told by an idiot, full of sound and fury, signifying nothing"—a conclusion far worse than the physical defeat he is about to suffer. The half-truths of the witches come into grim actuality as the enemy forces approach Macbeth's castle at Dunsinane. Each soldier carries before him a bough from Birnam Wood, and, when Macduff finally confronts Macbeth, he announces that he was not born of woman because he was from his "mother's womb untimely ripped." After the storming of the castle, Macduff enters with Macbeth's head, and "the time is free" from the long night of tyranny.

**Effect of the Play.** The tragedy of the benighted husband and wife is one of violent event, but it goes far beyond, psychologically and spiritually. We the audience are compelled—so hypnotic is the poetry and so sensitive and human the protagonists—to do more than witness a murder; we participate in it. Most murder stories are exciting, but we have the security of being outside the experience, comfortably on the side of good,

and only intellectually, not emotionally, interested in the discovery of the murderer. Shakespeare, however, invites us—too compellingly before we know it—into the "pestered senses" and "the torture of the mind" that beset Macbeth. We are forced to see the crime through the crazed eyes of a murderer. We, too, start with guilt. We see "pity, like a naked new-born babe, striding the blast." We hear, as though we had just done the deed, the pounding on the door. And we actually "taste" the fear—fear that within a miraculously short time can hideously enlarge our experience of a life we thought safely alien from ourselves. Our nightmare is aggravated, though never taken beyond the bounds of tragic art, by the murky and violent atmosphere.

But the sensationalism of event and atmosphere, and even the psychological depth of the play, should not blind us to the more profound spiritual tragedy: the sad story of a basically good man and his loyally ambitious wife who yield to "the instruments of darkness" and who actually pledge pacts with these instruments. Thereby, like Marlowe's Doctor Faustus, they forfeit their immortal souls for temporal rewards. The evil in the play is likewise greater than the spectacular witches, who are only servants of the devil. It is an evil that surpasses our sensory shock of the murder. It embraces us all as fallen humanity, making us feel the horror and sadness—expressed so powerfully in the poetry—of the ultimate punishment: the unforgivable sin of despair and the loss of the face of God.

**Stage History.** Despite the limitation of having only two substantial characters, *Macbeth* is an eminently actable and gripping play. It has attracted the most distinguished actors in the title role—from Shakespeare's contemporary Richard Burbage, through David Garrick, J. P. Kemble, Edmund Kean, Henry Irving, William Charles Macready (possibly the best), to, in modern times, John Gielgud, Laurence Olivier, Maurice Evans, and Eric Porter. The actresses playing Lady Macbeth have included Ellen Terry, Charlotte Cushman, Sarah Bernhardt, and Judith Anderson, but the towering figure was Sarah Siddons.

Theatrical legend has it that the witches have cast their spell upon performances, as witnessed in theater fires, audience riots, falls on the stage staircase, and actors wounded in combat. In any case, the play has taken the form of the very qualities that distinguish the witches: overwhelming attention to spectacle and bloody atmosphere. During the Restoration and extending well into the 18th century, Sir William Davenant's "improved" version displaced Shakespeare's from the theater. It was vigorously staged, an operatic kind of production, with witches flying through the air. Productions too violent and gory, though some were artistic successes in their own way, have been films, by Orson Welles (1948) and Roman Polanski (1971) and a brilliant Japanese version, *Throne of Blood* (1957).

Perhaps, though, there is no overcoming the witches and the emphasis on blood. Mrs. Siddons' contemporary Sheridan Knowles, when asked to put into a "plain blunt phrase" the impression that she made in the sleepwalking scene, "replied with a sort of shudder . . . : 'Well, sir, I smelt blood! I swear that I smelt blood!'"

PAUL A. JORGENSEN, *Author of "Our Naked Frailties: Sensational Art and Meaning in 'Macbeth'"*

**MACCABAEUS, Judas.** See JUDAS MACCABAEUS.

**MACCABEES**, mak'ā-bēz, the name now given to the Hasmonean family of Mattathias and his five sons—Judah (Judas Maccabaeus), Eleazar, John, Jonathan, and Simon, and Simon's descendants. Originally, Maccabee, meaning perhaps "Hammerlike," was only the nickname of Judah.

**Mattathias and the Revolt of Pious Jews.** Judaea was part of the Seleucid empire of Antiochus IV (reigned 175–164 b. c.). A complicated series of events led Antiochus to infer that the religion of the Jews had caused them to rebel against his rule. In response, the king in 167 instituted a series of drastic measures, supported by military force. Jews were forbidden to obey the biblical commandments and compelled to worship stones set up as images of deities in the temple in Jerusalem and to eat pork—on pain of torture and death if they refused.

Antiochus was mistaken in his inference that the Jews' religion had turned them into rebels. In fact, though pious Jews rioted against their high priest (appointed by the king), they believed that God forbade them to rebel against the king himself. Hence their dilemma: God, on pain of severe punishment, forbade them to violate the commandments or to rebel against the king, while the king, on pain of death, demanded that they violate the commandments. Martyrdom seemed to be their only course, as in the stories of the aged priest Eleazar and of an anonymous mother and her seven sons, who were tortured to death for refusing to eat forbidden food (II Maccabees 6:18–7:42).

Mattathias broke with the belief forbidding rebellion, and took arms to resist the oppressor king and to punish Jews who had acquiesced. Most pious Jews opposed him. Others who resisted the king's forces would not fight on the Sabbath and were annihilated. Mattathias then declared that defensive warfare on the Sabbath was permissible, only to be opposed as sinful by many pious Jews. Thus, at Mattathias' death, he was the leader of only a small guerrilla band.

**Judah and his Brothers.** Judah, however, had remarkable success in uniting pious Jews to fight and won battles against imperial troops led by high officials while the king with half his army was campaigning in Iranian regions. Government officials, in the absence of Antiochus IV, made a truce early in 164, which allowed pious Jews to practice their religion but did not concede to them even the right to control the temple. After waiting months in vain for the fulfillment of prophecies of miracles, Judah took, purified, and rededicated the temple, an achievement commemorated annually in the holiday known as Hanukkah. Antiochus died about the same time.

Interpreting prophecies to mean that God would not allow the Seleucid empire to rule much longer, Judah besieged the royal garrison in Jerusalem (163). In an ensuing battle his brother Eleazar was killed. The royal army, however, withdrew to quell a coup at Antioch, the Seleucid capital, and failed to crush Judah. Judah and his band refused to recognize Alcimus, the high priest appointed by the new king, Antiochus V (reigned 164–162 b. c.). In 161, Judah won a spectacular victory over a royal force, only to fall to a Seleucid army in 160.

A guerrilla force opposed to Alcimus gathered around Judah's brother Jonathan and withstood efforts of King Demetrius I (reigned 162–150 b. c.) to suppress them. During those years another brother, John, was killed by Arab ma-

raiders. Jonathan exploited the struggles between rival claimants to the Seleucid throne to win power in Judaea and royal appointment as high priest. Unlike Judah, he did not openly rebel against a king in power. But the Seleucid chief minister, Tryphon, saw him as a menace, entrapped him at Ptolemais, and had him killed in 143.

Simon took over leadership and successfully resisted Tryphon, who had made himself king. Simon won from Demetrius II, the rival pretender to the throne, exemption of Judaea from taxation—in effect, independence. For Judaea he conquered the port city of Jaffa and the strategic town of Gezer. In gratitude, an assembly of Jews made him and his heirs hereditary high priests and commanders of the nation. Simon was murdered by his son-in-law in 134.

**Later Maccabees.** Simon was succeeded by his son John Hyrcanus. At first, John deferred to the powerful Antiochus VII (reigned 139–129 b. c.), but after the king's death the Syrian empire crumbled in civil wars. Seemingly in fulfillment of biblical prophecies of wide conquests by the ruler of a redeemed Israel, John conquered Idumaea, Samaria, and part of Moab.

Even before John, the Hasmoneans seemed to have believed that their victories proved God had chosen them to rule and bring the Jews permanent liberation, perhaps as kings. John never presumed to take the royal title, but his son Judah Aristobulus called himself "king" in 104 b. c. He made conquests in Galilee. He reportedly was tricked into having his brother Antigonus killed, and he died of illness aggravated by remorse in 103.

Judah's brother Jannaeus Alexander succeeded him. He relinquished the title "king" for a time, but then reassumed it. His reign (103–76 b. c.) was marked by aggressive warfare, presumably to fulfill prophecies of an invincible Jewish king. Each defeat, however, demonstrated to pious Jews that he was not the prophesied king. He waged civil war against his own subjects and managed to stay in power until his death.

Though he had two sons, Jannaeus was succeeded by his wife Salina (Salome) Alexandra (reigned 76–67 b. c.). As queen, she did not have to fulfill prophecies of an invincible king. She abandoned warfare and won the support of the Pharisees, whose doctrines she followed. Strong-willed, she dominated her sons until her death.

Of her heirs, Hyrcanus was the elder, but Aristobulus was abler. Civil strife between the two ruined the kingdom and enabled the Romans under Pompey to conquer Judaea in 63 b. c. Judaea was stripped of the conquests made by the Hasmoneans. The troublesome title "king of the Jews" was abolished, and Hyrcanus was installed as high priest and head of the nation. He was a figurehead in the hands of his wily ministers Antipater and Herod. Aristobulus and his sons attempted repeatedly to seize power, as some Jews still hoped the prophesied invincible king would be a Hasmonean. Roman power defeated all these efforts. Aristobulus' son Mattathias Antigonus finally did become king of the Jews (40–37 b. c.), but the Romans defeated and killed him and installed Herod as king.

No ancient source claims that the later Hasmoneans became irreligious or "Hellenized." Their policies and those of their religious opponents were dictated by their religious beliefs.

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**MACCABEES, Books of the**, mak'á-bēz, the title, since the early centuries of the Christian era, of four Greek books written by Jews. Jews and Protestants regard none of them as canonical, but I and II Maccabees are accepted as scripture by the Roman Catholic and Eastern churches.

**I Maccabees.** I Maccabees is a history originally written in Hebrew to show how God came to choose the Hasmonean family to achieve a permanent victory for the Jews (see **MACCABEES**). The book, surviving through an early Greek translation, tells how Jews from Judaea early in the reign (175–164 b. c.) of Antiochus IV of Syria got permission from the king to associate more closely with Gentiles and to follow Gentile practices, including the establishment of a Greek-style gymnasium at Jerusalem.

The author of I Maccabees considered that these acts were sins, causing God to use Antiochus IV as his punishing instrument. However, Antiochus became arrogant and punished the Jews excessively, and pious Jews rose in revolt under the leadership of the Hasmonean family. The book traces the history of the Maccabees from the guerrilla warfare conducted by Mattathias against Antiochus to the accession of John Hyrcanus as high priest and prince of the Jewish nation (167/6–134 b. c.).

The brilliant writer used reliable sources; in a few matters of fact, he misinterpreted his evidence. Like his Hasmonean patrons, the author was deeply religious, and, like them, he rejected the doctrine of the resurrection of the dead and saw small value in unresisting martyrdom. He alludes to Hasmonean aspirations to kingship (2:57) but condemns the wearing of a diadem (8:14). Only one Hasmonean, Alexander Janneus, reigned as king (103–76 b. c.), abandoned the diadem, and needed such propaganda as I Maccabees to prove his right to hold office.

**II Maccabees.** II Maccabees is independent of I Maccabees. It begins with two letters, both calling on the Jews of Egypt to observe the festival now known as Hanukkah, commemorating the purification of the temple by the Jews in 164 b. c. The first letter (1:1–10a), of 124 b. c., is genuine; the second (1:10b–2:18), which purports to date from 164 b. c., is a forgery of late 103 b. c. The rest of the book is an abridgment, by an anonymous writer, of a history of the wars of Judah Maccabee (Judas Maccabaeus) and his brothers. The unabridged work has not survived, and nothing is known of its author, Jason of Cyrene, except his name. The abridger in his preface claims to have done no more than abridge and restyle, leaving intact the author's theses: when Israel is righteous, God protects the nation and its temple; when Jews sin, God punishes nation and temple; when Israel repents and gains merit through martyrdom, God turns merciful and restores both the nation and temple.

The highly emotional narrative is organized around miracles connected with the temple. In the high priesthood of the righteous Onias, supernatural beings prevent the king's minister Heliodorus from seizing deposits in the temple treasury (180's or early 170's b. c.). When sinners usurp the high priesthood later in the 170's and lead the Jews into the sin of practicing pagan ways, especially the pursuits of the Greek gymnasium, God uses Antiochus IV as his punishing instrument. The temple and Jerusalem are sacked and thousands of Jews killed or enslaved. The arrogant king goes beyond his mission as punish-

ing instrument and imposes a pagan type of worship upon the Jews, desecrating the temple and making martyrs of faithful adherents of Judaism.

Through the merit of the martyrs, God turns merciful, and a force under Judah Maccabee, with supernatural help, defeats the expeditions of the royal army and succeeds in purifying the temple, while the persecutor king perishes in agony from injuries and a loathsome disease. His successors, too, fail to overcome the righteous Jews, although a Jewish elder, Razis, is driven to theatrical suicide. Judah wins a brilliant victory, slaying the commander Nicanor, who had uttered threats against the temple (about 161 b. c.). From then on, as far as the abridger knew, Jerusalem remained in control of Jews, indicating that II Maccabees must have been written before Pompey captured Jerusalem in 63 b. c.

In contrast to I Maccabees, the abridged history loudly proclaims the doctrines of the resurrection of the dead and of the power of the merit of martyrs to induce God to grant victory. Chronological errors in the abridged history indicate that the unabridged work must have been written at least a generation after the events. Probably Jason of Cyrene wrote in the early 80's b. c., after the publication of I Maccabees, to refute the Hasmonean claims pressed therein.

**III Maccabees.** Canonical only in the Eastern Orthodox, Armenian, and Jacobite churches, III Maccabees is misnamed. It has nothing to do with Judah Maccabee, his family, or his times. It tells, first, how King Ptolemy IV of Egypt tried in 217 b. c. to enter the Holy of Holies of the temple in Jerusalem but was miraculously prevented, and then how he sought to take cruel vengeance on the Jews of Egypt but was repeatedly foiled by God. Each miracle comes in response to prayers of faithful Jews. These stories are demonstrably fictitious.

The early Christians who believed in the book called it a book of Maccabees because they perceived its resemblance to II Maccabees: the foiling of Ptolemy IV reflects that of Heliodorus, and the king's cruel measures against the Jews of Egypt reflect those of Antiochus IV against the Jews of Judaea. The book can be shown to have imitated a source of II Maccabees, one written between 131 and 129 b. c. On the other hand, documents quoted in III Maccabees contain formulas of greeting that went out of use about 100 b. c. Probably the purpose of the book was to argue that Jews should never trust the Ptolemaic dynasty: even the early King Ptolemy IV was no less hostile to the Jews than Ptolemies VIII and IX of the late 2d century b. c.

**IV Maccabees.** Perhaps accepted by early Greek Christians, IV Maccabees is now canonical for no sect. According to the Church Father Eusebius, it bore the title *On the Supremacy of Reason*. It is a well-written philosophical discourse, demonstrating the supremacy of reason over the passions, using as principal examples the fortitude under torture of the "Maccabaeans" martyrs, Eleazar and a mother and her seven sons. The author's sole source for those examples was II Maccabees. The author differs from his source in maintaining only the immortality of the soul, saying nothing of bodily resurrection. Ancient readers ascribed the work to the historian Josephus, but he is demonstrably not the author. The book was written between 18 and 55 A. D., probably in the reign of Emperor Caligula.

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**MacDIARMID**, mək-dir'mid, **Hugh** (1892–1978), Scottish poet, whose real name was Christopher Murray Grieve. He was born in Langholm, Dumfriesshire, on Aug. 11, 1892. Educated at the University of Edinburgh, he was a founder of the Scottish Nationalist party and a leading advocate of independence for Scotland.

MacDiarmid (also spelled McDiarmid) became a prominent figure in the Scottish literary revival of the 1920's. His poetry, written in a rich blend of native Scottish and English, reveals great gifts as a satirist and lyricist. He is credited with recreating a native Scottish literature and is regarded as among Scotland's greatest poets since Robert Burns.

MacDiarmid's collections of verse include *Sangschaw* (1925), *A Drunk Man Looks at the Thistle* (1926), *Scots Unbound* (1932), and *Kist of Whistles* (1947). *Collected Poems* appeared in 1962. Among his prose works are *What Lenin Has Meant to Scotland* (1935), which reflects his strong leftist political sympathies, and *Scottish Eccentricities* (1936). He also wrote a memorial to James Joyce (1957). MacDiarmid died on Sept. 9, 1978.

**MACDONALD, Flora** (1722–1790), Scottish Jacobite heroine. She was born in Milton, South Uist, an island in the Outer Hebrides. She was the daughter of a farmer but was brought up and educated by Lady Margaret and Sir Alexander Macdonald.

While visiting the island of Benbecula in the Outer Hebrides in June 1746 she met Prince Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender" to the throne, then a fugitive after the defeat of the Jacobite forces at Culloden Moor. She agreed to help the prince escape to the island of Skye and included him, disguised as a maidservant, in her party. For her role in the prince's escape she was imprisoned in the Tower of London, although she was released under the Indemnity Act of 1747.

She married Allan Macdonald of Kingsburgh in 1750. In 1774 they went to North America and settled in Fayetteville, N. C. Her husband served in the British Army in the Revolutionary War and was taken prisoner. Flora returned alone to Scotland and was later rejoined by her husband. They had seven children. She died in Kingsburgh, Scotland, on March 5, 1790.

**MACDONALD, George** (1824–1905), Scottish novelist and poet. He was born in Huntly, Aberdeenshire, on Dec. 10, 1824, and educated at King's College, Aberdeen University, graduating in 1845. He studied for the Congregational ministry at Highbury College, London, and was ordained in 1850. After preaching in Arundel, Sussex, for three years, he resigned because of ill health and moved first to Manchester and then to London, devoting himself principally to writing.

Macdonald's first book, a dramatic poem, was published in 1855. His numerous works include poetry, children's tales, and novels. The best known of his novels, which sympathetically portray the Scottish countryside, include *David Elginbrod* (1863), *Robert Falconer* (1868), and *Castle Warlock* (1882). Among his children's stories are *At the Back of the North Wind* (1871) and *The Princess and the Goblin* (1872). His poetry was published in two volumes in 1893 (new edition, 1911). He died in Ashted, Surrey, on Sept. 18, 1905.

**MACDONALD, Sir John Alexander** (1815–1891), Canadian statesman, founder of Canadian federation, and first prime minister of Canada. He was born in Glasgow, Scotland, on Jan. 11, 1815. In 1820 he emigrated with his family to Kingston, Upper Canada (now Ontario). He attended local schools there, began studying with a lawyer in 1830, and was admitted to the bar six years later. He then opened a law practice in Kingston.

**Early Political Career.** In 1841, as a result of the abortive rebellions of 1837 in Upper and Lower Canada, the two colonies had been united under a single parliament. Macdonald was elected to parliament for Kingston in 1844. He became receiver-general in 1847 in the cabinet of William Henry Draper, who had gathered a government of moderate conservatives. Macdonald's major undertaking in office was an abortive bill to divide the provincial university endowment among four denominational colleges. Before another election was called at the end of 1847, Draper abandoned the Conservative party leadership, and after a massive Reform victory in that election Macdonald began to build an alliance of conservative French- and English-speaking politicians. Although nominally led by the Tory Sir Allan MacNab, Macdonald's new party favored a program of progressive reform.

Because the conservatism of French Reform party members blocked much of their own government's plans, the Reform party split along linguistic and sectional lines within a couple of years of taking office. The collapse of the party in 1854 allowed the French and English "advanced Conservatives" organized by Macdonald to cooperate in a government jointly led by MacNab and Augustin Morin. As attorney general in this Liberal-Conservative cabinet, Macdonald produced three major legislative reforms in 1855: secularization of the clergy reserve lands in Upper Canada; elimination of seigniorial or manorial land tenure in Lower Canada; and establishment of an elected legislative council or upper house in the provincial parliament. One year later Macdonald used a religious conflict between French Roman Catholics and English Protestants to remove the aging MacNab. He assumed power jointly with Étienne P. Taché.

Macdonald's political achievements were built on abandonment of the reactionary policies of the old Tory party, cooperation with both major language and religious groups in the united province, willingness to compromise, and social camaraderie. By contrast, his private life was tragic, for his wife, Isabella Clark, whom he married in 1842, was chronically ill. She never fully recovered from the births of one son who died in infancy in 1848 and of a surviving son, Hugh John, born in 1850. After her death in 1857, Macdonald found increasing solace in alcohol.

By the mid-1850's the United Canadas were beset with chronic sectional confrontations. Parliament still had equal representation from Upper and Lower Canada, although Upper Canada already had surpassed Lower Canada in population. More important than the language issue of English versus French were the religious difficulties between overwhelmingly Roman Catholic Lower Canada and predominantly Protestant Upper Canada. Underlying these tensions were economic and cultural factors: the more industrialized and progressive Upper Canada accused agriculturally minded, conservative Lower Can-



THE PUBLIC ARCHIVES OF CANADA

Sir John Alexander Macdonald was the first prime minister of Canada and a father of Canadian federation.

ada of obstructing growth. Although facing only a fragmented Reform party, Macdonald and the Conservatives slowly lost political control. In 1858 his government was defeated in parliament by 14 votes; yet four days later they regained power from the radical Clear Grit Reformers through the infamous "Double Shuffle," a legal maneuver that allowed the cabinet to avoid seeking the voters' approval normally required at a change of government.

Macdonald tried to regain public support and circumvent Upper Canada's demand for representation by population by paying lip service to the proposal for a British North American confederation. His government fell in 1862, however, over defense policy when the American Civil War threatened Canadian security. His successors, the Liberals John Sandfield Macdonald and Louis V. Sicotte, resigned in March 1864 to avoid a similar fate, and the newest Macdonald-Taché conservative government was defeated in parliament less than three months later by only two votes. Faced with this deadlock after two elections and four governments in less than two years, Macdonald sought to obtain opposition support for a coalition that would make confederation of all the colonies its prime purpose. George Brown, the Clear Grit leader and a longtime enemy of Macdonald, agreed to enter this "Great Ministry" for the sake of this nationalistic ideal.

**Toward Confederation.** In September 1864, Macdonald, Brown, and other Canadian leaders convened a conference of Maritime provincial politicians in Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island, to join their confederation project. In October in Quebec City all agreed to 72 resolutions, the basis of the British North America Act passed later by the British Parliament. Before confederation was achieved on July 1, 1867, however, Macdonald had to face a number of

problems. These included Fenian invasions from the United States, American abrogation of the 1854 Reciprocity Treaty, and resistance by the Canadian Atlantic colonies to the loss of their identity in a confederated Canada. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia joined the confederation in 1867, but Prince Edward Island did not enter until 1873 and Newfoundland not until 1949.

While in London in 1866 to discuss Confederation, Macdonald married Susan Agnes Bernard. They later had one daughter, Mary. Despite his new family responsibilities, his alcoholism persisted, especially during political crises.

**First Prime Minister of Canada.** When the new federal Parliament met in Ottawa in 1867, Sir John Alexander Macdonald (he had just been made Knight Commander of the Bath) became the first prime minister of Canada. His government's main concern was the preservation of Canada's growing autonomy, involving relations with both Britain and the United States. Canada shared in the making of the Treaty of Washington in 1870, although opening the Canadian fisheries to Americans was the price of settling post-bellum differences. Acquisition of the Canadian prairies and northwest from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1870, intended to forestall American settlement in the region, led instead to the Red River rebellion by *métis* (people of mixed blood) in the new province of Manitoba.

To complete the expansion of Canada from ocean to ocean, Macdonald negotiated the entry into confederation of the colonies of British Columbia in 1872 and Prince Edward Island in 1873. British Columbia, however, demanded construction of a transcontinental railway across the empty plains and through the Rocky Mountains. To carry out this project, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company was organized with large government subsidies of land and money. The Liberal opposition then revealed that George Étienne Cartier, Macdonald's Quebec lieutenant, had accepted funds from the company during the 1872 election in return for a promise of a charter. Although Cartier died in the midst of the "Pacific Scandal," Macdonald resigned with his government in November 1873.

In the ensuing general election the Liberals defeated the Conservatives by a large margin. Macdonald, however, made the most of Liberal mistakes and a serious economic recession to rebuild his political fortunes. The failure of the Liberals to obtain reciprocity with the United States led him to promote a program of economic nationalism. This "National Policy," designed to encourage Canadian industrial development behind high tariff barriers, was aimed at American competition. This program, with its anti-American bias and preferential treatment of British manufactures, carried Macdonald and the Conservatives back into power in the election of 1878.

**Return to Power.** Macdonald's first priority was the completion of the long-delayed Canadian Pacific Railway. The new company undertook the task of building the 3,000-mile (4,800-km) line and surmounted several serious financial crises only because of the aid given by Macdonald's government before the last spike was driven in 1885. As in 1870, eastern expansion into the Canadian West disturbed local Indians and *métis*. When Macdonald ignored warnings of impending trouble, Louis Riel, leader of the Red River rebellion, returned from Montana in 1884 to organize a movement for redress of western grievances. Riel,

who was mentally ill, led a rebellion in the spring of 1885 but was defeated and captured. After Riel's conviction for treason, Macdonald faced conflicting demands. French Canadians saw Riel as a hero and urged leniency. But many English-speaking Canadians were convinced that Riel was a murderer. The government decided to let the death penalty stand, and Riel's "martyrdom" became part of a persistent anti-English, anti-Conservative tradition among French Canadians.

Riel's execution caused the creation in Quebec of *le parti national* to promote French-Canadian "racial" or cultural separation and greater provincial rights. Ironically, the Liberal Ontario government that had denounced Riel was also pursuing an increase of provincial powers through court cases. Subsequent legal decisions on appeal to the judicial committee of the privy council in Britain supported this revolt of the provinces at the expense of the centralist intentions of Macdonald and the other "fathers of Confederation" of 1867.

During the late 1880's, cultural conflicts of French versus English in Canada seemed to increase. In 1888 controversy arose over distribution of funds from the Jesuit's Estates, which were lands acquired by the crown in 1800. In 1890, in response to the Jesuit's Estates controversy, the province of Manitoba abolished the right of Roman Catholic parochial schools to receive state aid. Macdonald, true to his nickname "Old Tomorrow," temporized on such issues. Instead, he diverted public attention to the political dangers of Liberal proposals for free trade with the United States. In the election of 1891, Macdonald appealed successfully to traditional Canadian sympathies, declaring, "A British subject I was born, a British subject I will die." After several strokes he died in Ottawa on June 6, 1891.

An architect of Canadian confederation, Macdonald is regarded as the leading figure and formative influence in the nation's history.

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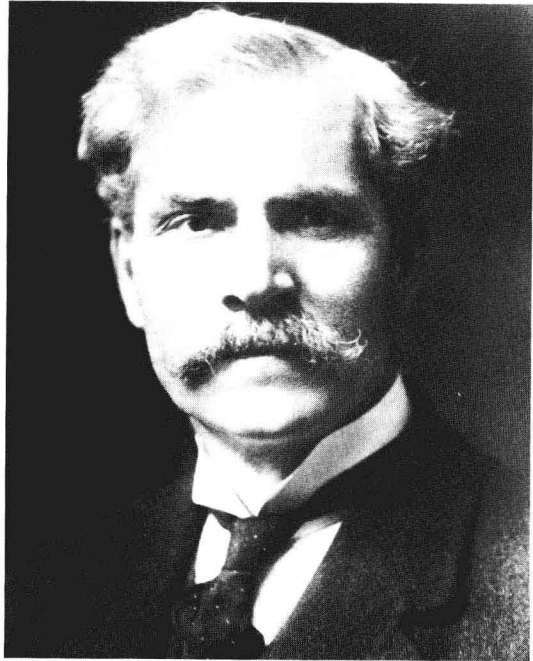
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**MACDONALD, John Sandfield** (1812-1872), Canadian politician, first premier of the province of Ontario, and joint premier of United Canada. He was born in St. Raphael, Upper Canada (Ontario), Canada, on Dec. 12, 1812. He was admitted to the bar in 1840 and elected to the parliament of the newly united provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841. He was attorney general of Upper Canada in 1849-1851.

The Reform party divided into factions with Macdonald, a liberal Roman Catholic, in opposition to George Brown and a radical, sectional, and Protestant group called "Clear Grits." Macdonald and Antoine A. Dorion formed a weak government from 1862 until 1864, when political deadlock developed, and Macdonald abandoned his opposition to Confederation and in 1867 led a coalition Ontario government. He was defeated by the Liberal party in 1871. He died in Cornwall, Ontario, on June 1, 1872.

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BROWN BROTHERS

Ramsay MacDonald was the first Labour party leader to become British prime minister (1924 and 1929-1935).

**MacDONALD, Ramsay** (1866-1937), British prime minister, who was one of the founders of the British Labour party and the first Labour prime minister. James Ramsay MacDonald was born in Lossiemouth, Morayshire, Scotland, on Oct. 12, 1866. Reared in humble circumstances by his grandmother and his unwed mother, he attended the parish school at Drainie until the age of 15. He moved to Bristol in 1885, and later to London, where after a period of unemployment he obtained a secretaryship to Thomas Lough, a politician.

His early interest in social reform led him to join the Social Democratic Federation in 1885 and the Fabian Society in the following year. In 1894 he applied for membership in the newly organized Independent Labour Party. He soon became one of its leaders and served as secretary and subsequently treasurer of the Labour Representation Committee from 1900 to 1924. This committee, formed to obtain greater labor participation in politics, evolved in 1906 into the British Labour party, which chose MacDonal as the chairman of its parliamentary group in 1911.

From 1901 to 1904, MacDonal was a member of the London County Council. In the general elections of 1906 and 1910 he was elected to Parliament from Leicester. As the leader of the party, he opposed Britain's entry into World War I. He was not a pacifist but was accused of lack of patriotism and lost substantial public support. He resigned his chairmanship of the party on Aug. 5, 1914. He later supported the war effort, however, and the wartime coalition of David Lloyd George.

MacDonal was defeated by a small majority in the by-elections of 1918 and 1921. In 1922, with the rising reaction against Lloyd George's policies, he was returned to Parliament by a comfortable margin. Invited to form a government



after the general election of 1923, he became prime minister and secretary of state for foreign affairs in Britain's first Labour government, on Jan. 23, 1924. MacDonald's government granted diplomatic recognition to the Soviet Union and helped to bring about an agreement on the Dawes Plan, an international effort to solve the problem of German war reparations. But when MacDonald concluded a trade agreement with the Soviet Union, the Liberal party turned against him. In October 1924 the Conservatives returned to power, largely owing to the publication, a few days before the election, of an alleged letter by Grigori Zinovyev, head of the Comintern, instructing the British Communist party to prepare for civil war. Its untimely publication hurt the Labour cause, and many Liberals voted Conservative.

In 1929 the Labour Party regained power, for the first time with a preponderant majority, and MacDonald was again prime minister. Faced with a growing deficit, he pressed for economies sufficient to balance the budget, including a reduction in unemployment insurance. The cabinet resigned in protest on Aug. 24, 1931, and on the next day MacDonald was again invited to form a new government.

The National Coalition Cabinet was formed on Aug. 25, 1931, containing the leaders of the Conservative and Liberal parties, with MacDonald as prime minister. He was immediately denounced by his followers and asked to resign. Vindicated in the general election of October 1931, he remained at the head of the coalition government for four years, during which Britain made an impressive recovery from the depths of the Depression.

On June 7, 1935, MacDonald resigned because of failing health, but accepted the post of lord president of the council in Stanley Baldwin's cabinet. He died while on a holiday sea voyage to South America, on Nov. 9, 1937.

MacDonald published several books, including *What I Saw in South Africa* (1903); *Socialism and Government* (1909); *The Government of India* (1919); *Parliament and Democracy* (1919); *Socialism: Critical and Constructive* (1924); and *American Speeches* (1930).

**MACDONALD, Ross** (1915–1983), the pen name of Kenneth Millar, American mystery writer and the creator of Lew Archer, a hard-boiled private detective. Millar was born on Dec. 13, 1915, in Los Gatos, Calif. He attended the University of Western Ontario and the University of Michigan, where he received his Ph.D. He died in Santa Barbara, Calif., on July 11, 1983.

After a few early novels, Millar won fame when, as John Ross Macdonald (later Ross Macdonald), he invented Lew Archer in *The Moving Target* (1949), the first of many novels in the tradition of Dashiell Hammett and Raymond Chandler, who also used tough detectives-heroes to expose the corruption of society. Although Millar's plots are often highly convoluted, he is a vigorous stylist and perceptive social critic. Subsequent Lew Archer books include *The Drowning Pool* (1950), *The Way Some People Die* (1951), *The Ivory Grin* (1952), *The Chill* (1964), *The Instant Enemy* (1968), *The Underground Man* (1971), *Sleeping Beauty* (1973), and *The Blue Hammer* (1976).

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**MACDONOUGH, mək-don'ə, Thomas** (1783–1825), American naval officer. He was born in The Trap (now Macdonough), Del., on Dec. 31, 1783. After entering the Navy in 1800 he served in the Barbary Wars as a midshipman on the *Constellation* and later on the *Philadelphia*. Transferred to the *Enterprise*, commanded by Capt. Stephen Decatur, he participated in 1804 in the attack on Tripoli.

Soon after the outbreak of the War of 1812, Macdonough was appointed to head the U.S. naval command on Lake Champlain. He developed an effective fighting force despite difficulties of logistics and personnel. In 1814 a powerful British army of 14,000, supported by a lake fleet, advanced from Canada on Plattsburgh, N.Y., with the intention of defeating the much weaker American land forces and marching on New York City. The British naval squadron, with 16 vessels and 92 guns, was confronted at Plattsburgh by Macdonough's 14 ships and 86 guns. In a fierce battle of maneuver and firepower on Sept. 11, 1814, Macdonough forced the British lake squadron to surrender and compelled the British army to retreat to Canada. The victory, called one of the most decisive of the war, earned Macdonough many honors and the rank of captain.

After the war Macdonough served as commandant of the Portsmouth Navy Yard and captain of the *Guerrière*, the *Ohio*, and the *Constitution*. In 1824 he became commander of the U.S. naval squadron in the Mediterranean. He died at sea on Nov. 10, 1825.

**MacDOWELL, Edward Alexander** (1860–1908), American composer, pianist, and teacher, who, about the turn of the 20th century, was widely regarded as America's foremost composer and was one of the first to be internationally acclaimed.

**Life.** MacDowell was born in New York City on Dec. 18, 1860. His mother, ambitious to capitalize on his musical talent, took him to Europe in 1876, where he was enrolled in the Paris Conservatory. Dissatisfied, however, he moved to Germany and came strongly under the influence of his composition teacher Joachim Raff and his foremost musical model, the pianist-composer Franz Liszt. Except for one trip back to America to get married in 1884, MacDowell remained in Germany until 1888, teaching piano, composing, and concertizing as a pianist.

Returning then to the United States, MacDowell lived in Boston until 1896, when he became the first professor of music at Columbia University. In 1904, after a clash of ideas with Columbia's new president, Nicholas Murray Butler, MacDowell resigned. By December of that year he showed signs of mental illness, which was exacerbated by a hansom-cab accident late in the winter. He steadily declined into insanity and died in New York City on Jan. 23, 1908.

**Works.** Except for some juvenilia published under the pseudonym Edgar Thorn, MacDowell's music was composed between 1881 (*First Modern Suite*, for piano) and 1902 (*Summer Wind*, for women's chorus, and *New England Idyls*, for piano). His works include some 16 sets of solo piano pieces, plus four large-scale sonatas and two concertos; 42 songs for solo voice and more than 20 works for chorus; four symphonic poems; and two orchestral suites.

Virtually all of MacDowell's instrumental music is programmatic, with evocative titles, and,