



Britannica

MICROPÆDIA
Ready
Reference

4

Delusion



The New Encyclopædia Britannica

Volume 4

MICROPÆDIA

Ready Reference

FOUNDED 1768

15 TH EDITION



Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.

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of Adelaide (Australia), British Columbia (Can.), Cambridge (Eng.),
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Sciences (Fr.); Simon Fraser University (Can.); the State University
of Leiden (Neth.); and York University (Can.).

First Edition	1768-1771
Second Edition	1777-1784
Third Edition	1788-1797
Supplement	1801
Fourth Edition	1801-1809
Fifth Edition	1815
Sixth Edition	1820-1823
Supplement	1815-1824
Seventh Edition	1830-1842
Eighth Edition	1852-1860
Ninth Edition	1875-1889
Tenth Edition	1902-1903

Eleventh Edition
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Twelfth Edition
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Thirteenth Edition
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Fourteenth Edition
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1944, 1945, 1946, 1947, 1948, 1949, 1950, 1951, 1952, 1953, 1954,
1955, 1956, 1957, 1958, 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964,
1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973
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Fifteenth Edition
© 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1985,
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Printed in U.S.A.

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 91-75907
International Standard Book Number: 0-85229-571-5

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The 12 volumes of the MICROPAEDIA contain tens of thousands of shorter articles on specific persons, places, things, and ideas, arranged in alphabetical order. The MICROPAEDIA can be used as an information resource on its own; and it can function as support for the longer articles in the MACROPAEDIA (to which it refers whenever appropriate). The MICROPAEDIA in turn is supported by references in the INDEX and by the lists of suggested readings in the PROPAEDIA. Finally, the MICROPAEDIA is the portion of the *Encyclopædia Britannica* best suited for the reader who wishes to browse among the countless subjects in all fields of human learning and history in all times and places.

Alphabetization

Entry titles are alphabetized according to the English alphabet, A to Z. All diacritical marks (such as in ö, ð, or ñ) and foreign letters without parallels in English (such as ayin ['] and hamza [']) are ignored in the alphabetization. Apostrophes likewise are ignored. Titles beginning with numbers, such as **1812, War of**, are alphabetized as if the numbers were written out (**Eighteen-twelve, War of**).

Alphabetization proceeds according to the "word-by-word" principle. Thus, **Mount Vernon** precedes **mountain**; any **John** entry precedes **John Henry**, which in turn precedes **Johne's disease**. Any character or string of characters preceding a space, hyphen, or dash is treated as a word and alphabetized accordingly. Thus, **De Broglie** precedes **debenture**, and **jack-o'-lantern** precedes **jackal**. Titles with identical spellings are arranged in the following order: (1) persons, (2) places, (3) things.

For many rulers and titled nobility, chronological order, as well as alphabetical order, governs placement. Rulers of the same given name (e.g., **William**) may be grouped together, separate from other entries, and indicated by the symbol •. They may be subgrouped alphabetically by country and, within each country, arranged chronologically (**William I, William II**, etc.). Nobility or peers of the same titled name (e.g., **Essex, EARLS OF**) are similarly grouped together, separate from other entries; they are indicated by the symbol • and arranged chronologically.

Places with identical names are arranged in the alphabetical order of the countries where they are located. Identical place-names in the same country are alphabetized according to the alphabetical order of the state, province, or other political subdivision where they are found.

Entry arrangement

The titles of entries are arranged according to the forms commonly found in indexes and dictionaries, with some special conventions.

Entry titles for certain physical features, institutions, structures, events, and concepts are ordinarily inverted to place the substantive word first. Thus, the Bay of Bengal is entered as **Bengal, Bay of**; the Bank of England as **England, Bank of**; the Tower of London as **London, Tower of**; the Siege of Vienna as **Vienna, Siege of**; and the balance of power as **power, balance of**. If the name of a physical feature, institution, structure, event, or concept has two or more descriptors, it is entered under the descriptor appearing first. Thus, the Episcopal Church in Scotland is entered as **Episcopal Church in Scotland** (not **Scotland, Episcopal Church in**); the Leaning Tower of Pisa as **Leaning Tower of Pisa**; and the kinetic theory of gases as **kinetic theory of gases**.

The entries for most Western persons are arranged so that one can read a name in correct order by beginning after the first comma, proceeding to the end of the boldface type, returning to the beginning word or words, and proceeding forward to the first comma. Thus, the entry **March, Patrick Dunbar, 2nd Earl of**, is read "Patrick Dunbar, 2nd Earl of March"; the entry **Orléans, Louis, duc d'**, is read "Louis, duc d'Orléans." Names of Far Eastern origin are given in Oriental order, with the surname preceding the personal name (e.g., **Tōjō Hideki, Deng Xiaoping, Nguyen Cao Ky**).

Cross-references

Some cross-reference entries appear in the MICROPAEDIA for the purpose of leading a reader from names that are familiar to alternate names that may not be. Cross-references also appear frequently within or at the ends of standard entries, where they are identified by *see*, *see also*, *see under*, *q.v.* (*quod vide*, "which see"), or *qq.v.* (*quae vide*, "which see," plural).

Certain entries serve both as relatively brief essays on general subjects and as cross-references to the same subjects treated at greater length and in greater depth in the MACROPAEDIA. Such an entry (e.g., **igneous rock**) begins with a definition of the subject and then provides the following cross-reference: "A brief treatment of igneous rocks follows. For full treatment, *see* MACROPAEDIA: Minerals and Rocks."

Entries on certain broad subjects (e.g., **music**) direct the reader to several relevant articles in the MACROPAEDIA and also to the PROPAEDIA for listings of related articles in the MICROPAEDIA.

Abbreviations

Abbreviations used in the MICROPAEDIA are given in a list that appears at the end of every MICROPAEDIA volume.

Territorial boundaries

In articles and maps indicating disputed geopolitical boundaries and territories, the attribution of sovereignty or administrative subordination to any specific area does not imply recognition of the status claimed by an administering power.

delusion, in psychology, absolute conviction, often preoccupying, that is characterized as idiosyncratic, of personal significance to the deluded individual and persistent despite logical absurdity or contradictory evidence. Delusions are symptomatic of such mental disorders as paranoia, schizophrenia, and psychotic depression and of such physiological conditions as senile psychosis, general paresis, and delirium. Delusions vary in intensity, extent, and coherence and to some extent represent pathological exaggeration of normal tendencies to rationalization, wishful thinking, and the like. Probably the most common are delusions of persecution and grandeur (see paranoia); others include delusions of disease (hypochondriasis, *q.v.*), guilt, erotic delusions (*e.g.*, that one is loved by some famous person), delusions of control, and so on.

Delvaux, Paul (b. Sept. 23, 1897, Antheit, Liège, Belg.), leading Belgian Surrealist painter, whose canvases portray transfigured humans in mysterious time and place.



Delvaux
Publi-Press

Impressed by the Spaniard Salvador Dalí, the Italian Giorgio de Chirico, and later his fellow Belgian René Magritte, he joined their Surrealist ranks in 1935. When touring Italy before World War II, he was influenced by its classic architecture (as de Chirico had been) and by the early-16th-century Mannerist paintings, which took liberties with form and space.

A representative Delvaux painting is "The Echo" (1943), in which three somnambulistic nudes walk in tandem past dead temples, as if walking through time. In "Entombment" (1951), skeletons bury fellow skeletons. Major exhibitions of his work have been held in North and South America and Africa as well as at many places in Europe; important awards have come to him from Italy and Belgium. From 1950 to 1962 he was a professor of painting in Brussels.

Delvigne, Henri-Gustave (b. 1799, Hamburg [Germany]—d. Oct. 18, 1876, Toulon, Fr.), French army officer and inventor who designed innovative rifles and helped introduce the cylindrical bullet.

Delvigne joined the French army as a youth and attained the rank of captain of the royal guard. In 1826 he introduced the Delvigne rifle, the powder chamber of which was narrower than the barrel. When the rifle ball was dropped down the barrel against the chamber, a few blows of the ramrod expanded the ball to fit the rifled grooves snugly. Although this system had several drawbacks, it performed well in Algeria and was used extensively.

Delvigne began experimenting with elongated bullets as early as 1830. He designed a

cylindro-conical bullet with a hollow base that would expand to fit the rifling grooves when fired. Although he did little to further develop the bullet, the basic idea was adopted by the French inventor Claude-Étienne Minié in the widely used Minié ball.

Delvigne designed a chambered breech rifle that was adopted by France in 1842. His experiments and developments were essential to later advances in firearms. He also introduced new grenade designs.

Delyn, district, Clwyd county, northeastern Wales. It was created in 1974 and covers an area of 107 square miles (278 square km) on the north coast of Wales. The district extends westward from the west bank of the Dee estuary into the Clwydian Hills and borders the districts of Rhuddlan and Glyndwr to the west and Alyn and Deeside to the south and south-east. Across the Dee estuary to the east lie the English districts of Wirral and Ellesmere Port. An obelisk erected by Nehemiah Griffith in 1736 to commemorate the spot where the

Saxons and Picts were defeated in AD 430 is located just west of the town of Mold in southern Delyn. Richard II formally surrendered to Henry Bolingbroke at Flint Castle in 1399, after having been persuaded to leave the safety of Conwy Castle by the treacherous earl of Northumberland. (Bolingbroke was crowned Henry IV in the same year.)

The Greenfield Valley at Holywell was one of the birthplaces of the Industrial Revolution, and Delyn remains a heavily industrialized region, although emphasis has shifted from the traditional ironworks and docks to the smaller scale and more diverse industries in engineering, chemicals, and synthetic textiles. Mold, the administrative seat of both Delyn district and Clwyd county, is also the market centre for the limited agricultural crops grown in southern Delyn and in western Alyn and Deeside districts. Flint is an important centre for the rayon industry and the production of chemicals. Tourist attractions in the district include St. Winefride's Well at the parish church in Holywell and the extensive bird havens that have been developed along parts of the shore of the Dee estuary. Daniel Owen, considered by many to be the father of the Welsh novel, was born in Mold in 1836. A railroad, paralleled by a highway farther inland, extends along the banks of the Dee estuary. Pop. (1989 est.) 66,000.

dema deity, any of several mythical ancestral beings of the Marind-Anim of southern New Guinea, the centre of a body of mythology called the *dema* deity complex. The decisive act in *dema* myths is the slaying of a *dema*

(ancestral) deity by the ancestral tribe. This act brings about the transition from the ancestral world to the human one. In many ancient myths, the creation of man occurs after the creation of the cosmos. Humans and those attributes that are most decisively human—sexuality, the cultivation of food, and death—are viewed as a decisive break with the previous mode of existence, which was characterized by asexual reproduction, the spontaneous production of food, and immortality.

The rupture between the divine world and the ensuing human world may be brought about by theft of a divine property (*e.g.*, the stealing of fire or grain by a culture hero), which, if viewed as an evil act, regards the human condition as punishment (the Fall complex). In other traditions, man is defined as a clever thief, and the human condition and culture is perceived as the seizing of an opportunity (the Prometheus or trickster complex; see trickster tale). Another view is that the rupture between the divine-ancestral and the human worlds is associated with the slaying of an ancestor or an ancestral deity by the ancestors. The term for this structure is the *dema* deity complex.

The most widely quoted example of the *dema* deity complex is the version of the Ceramese myth of Hainuwele, by the Danish anthropologist Adolf E. Jensen. According to this myth, a *dema* man named Amenta found a coconut speared on a boar's tusk and in a dream was instructed to plant it. In six days a palm had sprung from the nut and flowered. Amenta cut his finger, and his blood dripped on the blossom. Nine days later a girl grew asexually from the blossom, and in three more days she became sexually mature. Amenta named her Hainuwele, which means Coconut Branch. During a major religious festival Hainuwele stood in the midst of the dance grounds and excreted valuable objects. After nine days of this activity, the *dema* men dug a hole in the middle of the dance ground, threw Hainuwele in, and danced the ground firm on top of her. Amenta dug up her corpse, dismembered it, and planted the pieces. These pieces gave birth to plant species previously unknown, especially tubers, which have since been the Ceramese's chief food. Another *dema* goddess forced the *dema* men to go through a labyrinth. Some became ordinary mortals; others changed into animals and spirits.

Since its initial discovery in New Guinea, the *dema* complex has been found to be characteristic of the culture of many other tuber cultivators. The basic motif of death and dismemberment appears to reflect the fact that a tuber must be cut up and the pieces buried in order to propagate the species.

A list of the abbreviations used in the MICROPAEDIA will be found at the end of this volume

Demades (b. c. 380 BC—d. 319), Athenian orator and diplomat who rose from humble origins to a leading place in politics through his vigorous speeches and shrewd ability to fathom popular opinion. Demades opposed Demosthenes' attempt to arouse the Athenians against Philip II of Macedonia, but he fought against the Macedonians at the Battle of Chaeronea (338) and was taken prisoner. On his release he helped negotiate peace between Macedonia and Athens. The admiration of Philip's successor, Alexander the Great, for Demades caused the conqueror to treat Athens leniently after its rebellion in 335. In 324 Demades proposed divine honours for Alexander, but during the winter of 324–323 he was found guilty of accepting bribes against Alexander from Harpalus, Alexander's treasurer. He was heavily fined and lost his citi-

zenship but was reinstated in 322 so that he could negotiate a peace with Antipater (regent in Macedonia) concluding the Lamian War (Athens versus Macedonia, 323–322). Before setting out he persuaded the citizens to pass the death sentence upon Demosthenes and his followers. His embassy resulted in a peace disadvantageous to the Athenians. In 319 he was again sent to the Macedonian court, but either Antipater or his son Cassander, learning that Demades had intrigued with the regent Perdiccas, put him to death. None of Demades' speeches survive.

demand (economics): *see* supply and demand.

demand curve, in economics, a graphic representation of the relationship between product price and the quantity of the product demanded. It is drawn with price on the vertical axis of the graph and quantity demanded on the horizontal axis. With few exceptions, the demand curve is delineated as sloping downward from left to right because price and quantity demanded are inversely related (*i.e.*, the lower the price of a product, the higher the demand or number of sales). This relationship is contingent on certain *ceteris paribus* (other things equal) conditions remaining constant. Such conditions include the number of consumers in the market, consumer tastes or preferences, prices of substitute goods, consumer price expectations, and personal income. A change in one or more of these conditions causes a change in demand, which is reflected by a shift in the location of the demand curve. A shift to the left indicates a decrease in demand, while a movement to the right an increase. *Compare* supply curve.

Demaratus (fl. late 6th–early 5th century BC), king of Sparta, together with Cleomenes



Demaratus, bronze bust; in the Museo Archeologico Nazionale, Naples
Brogi—Art Resource/EB Inc.

I, who frustrated Cleomenes' designs on both Athens and Aegina. He was consequently de-throned by Cleomenes on a false charge of illegitimacy, upon which he fled to Persia and was given some small cities in northwestern Asia Minor, which his descendants held in Xenophon's time. The historian Herodotus told several stories of Demaratus' advice and warnings to Xerxes, whom he accompanied on his expedition to Greece in 480.

Demavend, Mount, Persian QOLLEH-YE DAMĀVAND, extinct volcanic peak of the Elburz Mountains, Iran, about 42 miles (68 km) northeast of Tehrān. Estimates of its height vary from about 18,400 feet (5,600 m) to more than 19,000 feet (5,800 m), and it dominates the surrounding ranges by 3,000 to 8,000 feet (900 to 2,450 m). Its steep, snowcapped cone is formed of lava flows and ash and is crowned



Mount Demavend, Iran
Marilyn Silverstone—Magnum

by a small crater with sulfuric deposits. Below the crater are two small glaciers; there are also fumaroles (holes for escaping fumes and gases), hot springs, and mineral deposits of travertine. Mount Demavend is mentioned in several Persian legends, one of which gives it as the resting place of Noah's ark.

deme, Greek *DEMOS*, in ancient Greece, country district or village, as distinct from a polis, or city-state. *Dēmos* also meant the common people (like the Latin *plebs*). In Cleisthenes' democratic reform at Athens (508/507 BC), the demes of Attica (the area around Athens) were given status in local and state administration. Males 18 years of age were registered in their local demes, thereby acquiring civic status and rights.

The demes of Attica were local corporations with police powers and their own property, cults, and officials. Members met to decide deme matters and kept property records for purposes of taxation. The *bouleται* (members of the Athenian Boule, or Council of 500) were selected from each deme in proportion to its size. Because the demes were natural districts in origin, their size varied considerably. There were about 150 demes in the 5th century BC and more than 170 later. A typical deme had three *bouleται*, but the largest had as many as 22.

The term deme continued to designate local subdivisions in Hellenistic and Roman times and was applied to circus factions at Constantinople in the 5th and 6th centuries AD.

dementia, chronic, usually progressive deterioration of intellectual functions, usually owing to pathological changes in the brain. Dementia is most commonly seen in the elderly and usually begins with the loss of short-term memory; other initial manifestations can include confusion, irritability, and personality disturbance. Dementia was formerly distinguished from senility, which was considered to affect those over age 65; the term "pre-senile dementia," or Alzheimer's disease, was reserved for younger patients. However, it is now recognized that the same symptoms occur in all victims of dementia regardless of age.

The largest number of those with dementia have the irreversible, degenerative brain disease known as Alzheimer's disease (*q.v.*). These individuals first lose recent memory and higher intellectual functions such as judgment and abstract reasoning, then develop more severe memory losses leading to spatial and temporal disorientation. They may become emotionally unstable and deteriorate physically as well as mentally, ultimately losing even the ability to speak coherently. Dementia is also present in another degenerative brain disease, Pick's disease (*q.v.*).

The most significant other cause of dementia is cerebral arteriosclerosis, which accounts for 20 percent of all cases. Dementia is often a feature in cases of Huntington's chorea, and the syndrome is prominent in cases of paresis (*q.v.*) and some types of encephalitis. Treatable dementias occur in hypothyroidism, other metabolic diseases, and some malignant tumours. Treatment of the underlying disease

in these cases may arrest the progress of dementia but usually does not reverse it. About 10–20 percent of all cases of dementia result from such treatable diseases.

dementia paralytica (disease): *see* paresis.

Demerara River, river in eastern Guyana that rises in the forests of central Guyana and flows northward without important tributaries for 215 miles (346 km) to the Atlantic Ocean at Georgetown. Its narrow estuary and rapid flow keep clear a direct channel of 16–20 feet (5–6 m) to the ocean. Oceangoing steamers ascend 65 miles (105 km) to Linden for bauxite; smaller ships reach Malali, 25 miles (40 km) farther upstream; beyond lie numerous rapids. Its name is that of the old Dutch colony of Demerara, which joined with Essequibo and Berbice in 1831 to become British Guiana (from 1966 the independent republic of Guyana).

demesne, in English feudal law, that portion of a manor not granted to freehold tenants but either retained by the lord for his own use and occupation or occupied by his villeins or leasehold tenants. When villein tenure developed into the more secure copyhold and leaseholders became protected against premature eviction, the "lord's demesne" came to be restricted and usually denoted the lord's house and the park and surrounding lands.

Demesne of the crown, or royal demesne, was that part of the crown lands not granted to feudal tenants but managed by crown stewards until it was later surrendered to Parliament in return for an annual sum. Ancient demesne was land vested in the crown in 1066, the tenants of such land having a number of privileges, such as freedom from tolls. *See also* copyhold; freehold.

Demeter, in Greek religion, daughter of the deities Cronus and Rhea, sister and consort of Zeus (the king of the gods), and goddess of agriculture. Her name means either "grain mother" or "mother earth."

Demeter is rarely mentioned by Homer, nor is she included among the Olympian gods, but the roots of her legend are probably ancient. The legend centred on the story of her daughter Persephone (*q.v.*), who was carried off by Hades, the god of the underworld. Demeter went in search of Persephone and, during her journey, revealed her secret rites to the people of Eleusis, who had hospitably received her (*see* Eleusinian Mysteries). Her distress at her daughter's disappearance was said to have diverted her attention from the harvest and



Demeter of Cnidus, sculpture, mid-4th century BC; in the British Museum
By courtesy of the trustees of the British Museum

caused a famine. In addition to Zeus, Demeter had a consort, Iasion (a Cretan), to whom she bore Plutus (Wealth; i.e., abundant produce of the soil).

Demeter appeared most commonly as a grain goddess. The name *Ioulo* (from *ioulos*, "grain sheaf") has been regarded as identifying her with the sheaf and as proving that the cult of Demeter originated in the worship of the grain mother. The influence of Demeter, however, was not limited to grain but extended to vegetation generally and to all the fruits of the earth, except the bean. In that wider sense Demeter was akin to Gaea (Earth), with whom she had several epithets in common, and was sometimes identified with Rhea-Cybele.

Another important aspect of Demeter was that of a divinity of the underworld; as such she was *chthonia* (earth goddess) at Sparta, and especially at Hermione in Argolis, where, at the festival Chthonia, a cow was sacrificed by four old women. The epithets Erinys (Avenger) and Melaina (the Black One) as applied to Demeter were localized in Arcadia and stress the darker side of her character.

Demeter also appeared as a goddess of health, birth, and marriage. A certain number of political and ethnic titles were assigned to her, the most important being Amphiktyonis, as patron goddess of the Amphictyonic League, subsequently well known in connection with the temple at Delphi.

Among the agrarian festivals held in honour of Demeter were the following: (1) Haloa apparently derived from *halōs* ("threshing floor"), begun at Athens and finished at Eleusis, where there was a threshing floor of Triptolemus, her first priest and inventor of agriculture; it was held in the month Poseideon (December). (2) Chloia, the festival of the corn beginning to sprout, held at Eleusis in the early spring (Anthesterion) in honour of Demeter Chloë (the Green), the goddess of growing vegetation. This festival is to be distinguished from the later sacrifice of a ram to the same goddess on the sixth of the month Thargelion, probably intended as an act of propitiation. (3) Proerosia, at which prayers were offered for an abundant harvest, before the land was plowed for sowing. It was also called Proarktouria, an indication that it was held before the rising of Arcturus. The festival took place, probably sometime in September, at Eleusis. (4) Thalsia, a thanksgiving festival held in autumn after the harvest in the island of Cos. (5) The Thesmophoria, a women's festival meant to improve the fruitfulness of the seed corn. (6) The Skirphoria held in midsummer, a companion festival.

The attributes of Demeter were chiefly connected with her character as goddess of agriculture and vegetation—ears of corn, the mystic basket filled with flowers, corn, and fruit of all kinds. The pig was her favourite animal, and as a chthonian deity she was accompanied by a snake. In Greek art Demeter resembled Hera, but she was more matronly and of milder expression; her form was broader and fuller. She was sometimes riding in a chariot drawn by horses or dragons, sometimes walking, or sometimes seated upon a throne, alone or with her daughter. The Italians identified Demeter with their own Ceres (q.v.).

Demetrios I (Orthodox patriarch): see Dimitrios I.

Demetrius, name of rulers grouped below by country or patriarchate and indicated by the symbol ●.

Foreign-language equivalents:

Greek Dimitrios
Russian Dmitry, or
Dmitrii

BACTRIA

● **Demetrius** (fl. 2nd century BC), king of Bactria who was the son and successor of Euthy-

demus. The historical evidence for Demetrius' reign is slight and open to varying interpretations. According to some scholars, he ruled



Demetrius, coin, 2nd century BC

By courtesy of the trustees of the British Museum; photograph, J.R. Freeman & Co. Ltd.

from about 190 to about 167, when he was killed by Eucratides, who then became king. Earlier, Demetrius had made such extensive conquests in northern India that for a brief time he virtually reestablished there the great Mauryan Empire that had collapsed about 184. Other scholars, however, contend that it was a younger Demetrius (likewise a Bactrian king but not directly related to the son of Euthydemus) who made conquests in India, of a less extensive kind, and lost his kingdom to Eucratides after reigning from about 180 to 165. The fact that one of these two men was the first to strike coins with a bilingual inscription in Greek and Prakrit suggests that he pursued a policy of treating the Indian peoples and the Bactrian Greeks as equals.

MACEDONIA

● **Demetrius I POLIORCETES** (b. 336 BC, Macedonia—d. 283, Cilicia), king of Macedonia 294–288.

He was the son of Alexander the Great's general Antigonus I Monophthalmus, in whose campaigns he commanded with distinction and whose empire, based in Asia, he attempted to rebuild. Unsuccessful against Ptolemy I Soter, satrap of Egypt, and against the Nabataeans, he liberated Athens from the Macedonian Cassander in 307 BC and in 306 decisively defeated Ptolemy at Salamis (Cyprus). From his unsuccessful siege of Rhodes (305) he won the title Poliorcetes (the Besieger). Recalled by his father from Greece, he fought in the Battle of Ipsus, in which his father was killed and lost much of his empire (301). Demetrius kept a foothold in Greece and in 294 reoccupied Athens and established himself as king of Macedonia, but in 288 he was driven out by his rivals Lysimachus and Pyrrhus. He finally surrendered to Seleucus I Nicator in Cilicia (285) and died there (283). He is the subject of one of Plutarch's *Lives*.

● **Demetrius II** (b. c. 276 BC—d. 229), king of Macedonia from 239 BC.

He gained distinction as a boy by defeating and dethroning Alexander of Epirus, thus saving Macedonia (c. 263). On his accession he was faced by an Aetolian and Achaean coalition, later joined by an Epirote League. Thus threatened, he was drawn northward by a Dardanian invasion, and after a defeat there he died. His failure seriously weakened both kingdom and monarchy.

PATRIARCHATE

● **Demetrius I**: see Dimitrios I.

SYRIA

● **Demetrius I SOTER** (Preserver) (b. c. 187 BC—d. 150), king of Syria from 162 to 150 BC. He was one of the line of rulers of the Seleucid dynasty, founded in 312 by a Macedonian successor of Alexander the Great.

The son of King Seleucus IV Philopator (ruled 187 to 175), Demetrius was sent to Rome as a hostage during his father's reign.

While he was away, Syria came under the rule of his uncle, Antiochus IV Epiphanes (died 164), and then of his cousin, Antiochus V. Aided by the Greek statesman and historian Polybius, Demetrius escaped from Rome in 162 and returned to Syria to claim the throne. Having defeated the rebel general Timarchus, he was recognized as king by the Roman Senate. In 160 he crushed a Jewish rebellion in Palestine. Demetrius died while fighting



Demetrius I, coin, 2nd century BC; in the British Museum

By courtesy of the trustees of the British Museum; photograph, J.R. Freeman & Co. Ltd.

the pretender Alexander Balas, who was supported by Rome, Egypt, and Pergamum.

● **Demetrius II NICATOR** (Victor) (b. 161 BC—d. 125), king of Syria from 145 to 139 and from 129 to 125 BC.

The son of King Demetrius I Soter, he went into exile when his father was killed fighting the usurper Alexander Balas in 150. Returning to Syria (147) with an army of Cretan mercenaries, he deposed Balas in 145 and installed



Demetrius II, coin, 2nd century BC; in the British Museum

By courtesy of the trustees of the British Museum; photograph, J.R. Freeman & Co. Ltd.

himself on the throne. In 140 he drove back a Parthian invasion but was defeated and captured by the Parthians in 139. Released from captivity in 129, he returned to Syria, but, during his second reign, controlled only part of the kingdom. He was assassinated about four years later.

VLADIMIR

● **Demetrius (II) Donskoy**: see Dmitry (II) Donskoy.

Demetrius CHALCONDYLES (b. 1424, Athens—d. 1511, Milan), Renaissance teacher of Greek and of Platonic philosophy.

In 1447 he went to Italy, where Cardinal Bessarion became his patron. In 1463 he was made professor at Padua, and in 1479 he was summoned by Lorenzo de' Medici to Florence, but in 1492 he moved to Milan. He was associated with Marsilio Ficino, Politian, and Teodoro Gaza in the revival of letters in the Western world. One of his pupils at Florence was the German scholar Johann Reuchlin. Demetrius Chalcondyles published the first

printed editions of Homer (1488), of Isocrates (1493), and of the *Suda* lexicon (1499); and a Greek grammar (*Erotemata*) in question-and-answer form.

Demetrius OF PHALERON, also called **DEMETRIUS PHALEREUS** (b. c. 350 BC, Phaleron, near Athens [Greece]), Athenian orator, statesman, and philosopher who was appointed governor of Athens by the Macedonian general Cassander (317 BC). He favoured the upper classes and gave effect to the ideas of such earlier political theorists as Aristotle. When the old democracy was restored in 307, Demetrius escaped to Thebes and later to Egypt, where he became prominent at the court of Ptolemy, enjoying a high reputation as an orator.

Demetrius, PSEUDO-: see Dmitry, False.

Demetrius Cydones: see Cydones, Demetrius.

Demetrius Triclinius: see Triclinius, Demetrius.

Demidov FAMILY, Russian family that acquired great wealth in the 18th century, largely through iron production and mining, and became benefactors and patrons of the arts and sciences.

Nikita Demidovich Antufyev (1656–1725), a blacksmith from Tula who took the surname Demidov in 1702, began to accumulate his family's fortune by manufacturing weapons and, after receiving land grants from Peter I the Great (reigned 1682–1725), by building and operating an iron foundry at Tula. Peter made Demidov, a former serf, a nobleman.

Akinfy Demidov (1678–1745), Nikita's son, increased his inherited wealth by expanding his holdings and establishing gold, silver, and copper mines, mainly in the Ural Mountains. Largely as a result of Nikita's and Akinfy's efforts, the Demidov family, by the end of the 18th century, controlled vast estates and enterprises and produced about 40 percent of the country's output of cast iron.

Subsequently, other members of the family engaged in philanthropic activities. Akinfy's nephew Pavel Grigoryevich Demidov (1738–1821) traveled extensively and became a benefactor of Russian education. His nephew Count Nikolay Nikitich Demidov (1773–1828) directed the family's mining business and also contributed liberally to scientific education, mainly in Moscow. Nikolay's elder son, Pavel Nikolayevich Demidov (1798–1840), founded an annual prize for Russian literature, to be awarded by the Academy of Sciences. Nikolay's younger son, Anatoly Nikolayevich Demidov (1812–70), also a traveler and patron of the arts, lived for many years in Italy, purchased the Tuscan title prince of San Donato, and married (1840) Princess Mathilde, Jérôme Bonaparte's daughter and Napoleon I's niece.

deMille, Agnes, in full **AGNES GEORGE DEMILLE** (b. Sept. 18, 1905, New York, N.Y., U.S.), American dancer and choreographer who further developed the narrative aspect of dance and made innovative use of American themes, folk dances, and gestures in her choreography of musical plays and ballets.

Her father was the playwright William Churchill deMille, her mother the daughter of the famous economist Henry George, and her uncle the film director Cecil B. deMille. She spent her youth (from 1914) in Hollywood, Calif., and earned a B.A. degree from the University of California at Los Angeles, majoring in English. She also learned dance. She moved to New York City, and from 1929 to 1940 she toured the United States and Europe, giving concerts of her own humorous character sketches in mime-dance. She created her first major roles in ballet with the Ballet Rambert,



Agnes deMille and Yurek Lazowski performing in *Three Virgins and a Devil*, 1955

Fred Fehl

performing in works by Antony Tudor, and later studied modern dance.

Rodeo (1942), one of her most important ballets, was created for the Ballet Russe de Monte Carlo. The first ballet to include tap dancing, it used characteristically American gestures—bronco riding and steer roping movements. Most of deMille's other ballets were choreographed for New York City's Ballet Theatre, which she joined in 1940. Her works for that company include *Fall River Legend* (1948), *The Harvest According* (1952), and *Three Virgins and a Devil* (1941).

DeMille's equally outstanding career as a choreographer of musicals began in 1929 with *The Black Crook*. In 1943 she choreographed the dances for *Oklahoma!* In that Broadway musical, dance not only added to the dramatic atmosphere but also, for the first time in American theatrical history, was instrumental in advancing the plot. Among the other musicals for which she staged the dances were *One Touch of Venus* (1943), *Carousel* (1945), *Brigadoon* (1947), *Gentlemen Prefer Blondes* (1949), *Paint Your Wagon* (1951), *The Girl in Pink Tights* (1954), and *110 in the Shade* (1963). She also arranged dances for the films *Romeo and Juliet* (1936) and *Oklahoma!* (1955), directed plays, and choreographed television programs.

Her extensive writings include *To a Young Dancer* (1962), *The Book of the Dance* (1963), *Lizzie Borden* (1968), *Russian Journals* (1970), and *America Dances* (1980), as well as several volumes of autobiography and a biography of her fellow dancer-choreographer Martha Graham (*Martha: The Life and Work of Martha Graham*, 1991).

deMille, Cecil B., in full **CECIL BLOUNT DEMILLE** (b. Aug. 12, 1881, Ashfield, Mass., U.S.—d. Jan. 21, 1959, Hollywood, Los Angeles, Calif.), American motion-picture producer-director whose use of spectacle attracted vast audiences and made him a dominant figure in Hollywood for almost five decades.



Cecil B. deMille
EB Inc.

He was the son of the playwright Henry Churchill deMille. After studying at the Pennsylvania Military College and the American Academy of Dramatic Arts, he began his career in the theatre as an actor in 1900. He was soon collaborating with his brother, the playwright William Churchill deMille.

In 1913 deMille joined Jesse Lasky, Samuel Goldwyn, and Arthur Freed in forming the Jesse Lasky Feature Play Company, which subsequently became Paramount Pictures. DeMille's own first film was a western, *The Squaw Man* (released 1914), one of the first full-length feature films produced in Hollywood. His ability to give the public what it wanted soon made him a "name" director in the days when directors were virtually unknown. From 1919 to 1923 deMille made comedies that reflected the postwar freedom from moral restraint, but then he began to produce films dealing with biblical subjects and featuring spectacular crowd scenes and sets. Among these were *The Ten Commandments* (1923) and *The King of Kings* (1927), which, it is estimated, was seen by 800,000–1,000 persons.

DeMille was known for his strong and assertive personality: he was the first director to use a megaphone on the set and the first to install a loudspeaker system for issuing orders. He was also noted for his right-wing political views and his strenuous opposition to labour unions. In later decades deMille concentrated on large productions, culminating in *Samson and Delilah* (1949), *The Greatest Show on Earth* (which won the Academy Award for the best picture of 1952), and a second version of *The Ten Commandments* (1956), his 70th and last film. His other major films included *The Sign of the Cross* (1932) and *Union Pacific* (1939). From 1936 to 1945 deMille appeared on radio in a popular weekly series of adaptations of recent motion pictures.

Although many critics dismissed deMille's films as devoid of artistic merit, he was conspicuously successful in a genre—the epic—that he made distinctively his own.

Deming, W. Edwards, in full **WILLIAM EDWARDS DEMING** (b. Oct. 14, 1900, Sioux City, Iowa, U.S.), American statistician, educator, and consultant whose advocacy of quality-control methods in industrial production aided Japan's rise to global supremacy in many industries in the late 20th century.

The son of a small-town lawyer, Deming attended the University of Wyoming (B.S., 1921), University of Colorado (M.S., 1924), and Yale University (Ph.D. in mathematical physics, 1928). He then taught physics at several universities, worked as a mathematical physicist at the United States Department of Agriculture (1927–39), and was a statistical adviser for the U.S. Census Bureau (1939–45). From 1946 he was a professor of statistics at New York University's graduate school of business administration, and he was also a research consultant for private business.

Deming became interested in the use of statistical analysis to achieve better quality control in industry in the 1930s, and in 1950 he was invited to Japan to teach that nation's executives and engineers about the new methods. Deming's ideas were eagerly adopted by Japanese companies, whose commitment to quality control helped Japanese products to dominate the market in many parts of the world. Japan's Deming Award, which is given to major corporations who win a rigorous quality-control competition, is named after Deming.

In the 1980s Deming's ideas were taken up by American corporations as they sought to compete more effectively against foreign manufacturers. Deming's quality-control methods centred on systematically tallying product defects, analyzing their causes, correcting the latter, and then recording the corrections' effects on subsequent product quality.

Demirel, Süleyman (b. Oct. 6, 1924, İslâmköy, Tur.), politician and civil engineer who served seven times as prime minister of Turkey.

Born into a peasant family, Demirel graduated in 1948 from the Technical University of

Istanbul as an engineer. He entered politics in 1961 and was elected to the National Assembly that same year as a member of the Justice Party (JP), becoming the party's leader in 1964. On Oct. 27, 1965, after the general elections, he became the youngest prime minister in his country's history. As prime minister he improved Turkey's ties with its NATO allies and the United States and instituted development programs for his basic constituency, the Turkish peasantry.

Demirel was reelected in elections in 1969, but his moderate policies faced growing opposition from both the left and the right, and, upon his refusal to allow the military to assume a policy-making role in efforts to combat terrorism, Turkey's military commanders forced him to resign in March 1971. In March 1975 a coalition of the JP and smaller right-wing parties in a Nationalist Front once more restored Demirel to the prime ministry.

Demirel pursued a policy of economic growth, in spite of civil violence and terrorism from extremist factions, inflation, and a trade deficit. But the electoral coalitions that now enabled him to maintain power were inherently weak, unstable, and governmentally ineffective. His fourth ministry fell in June 1977, but he achieved a fifth prime ministry from July to December 1977 and a sixth from November 1979 to September 1980. As the country continued to be torn apart by extremist violence, the military overthrew his government on Sept. 12, 1980. Demirel was banned from participating in politics for a time, but he was once more returned to office of prime minister in November 1991, with the election defeat of the governing Motherland Party.

Demiurge, Greek *DEMIOURGOS* ("public worker"), plural *DEMIOURGOI*, in philosophy, a subordinate god who fashions and arranges the physical world to make it conform to a rational and eternal ideal. Plato adapted the term, which in ancient Greece had originally been the ordinary word for "craftsman," or "artisan" (broadly interpreted to include not only manual workers but also heralds, soothsayers, and physicians), and which in the 5th century BC had come to designate certain magistrates or elected officials.

Plato used the term in the dialog *Timaeus*, an exposition of cosmology in which the Demiurge is the agent who takes the preexisting materials of chaos, arranges them according to the models of eternal forms, and produces all the physical things of the world, including human bodies. The Demiurge is sometimes thought of as the platonic personification of active reason. The term was later adopted by some of the Gnostics, who, in their dualistic world-view, saw the Demiurge as one of the forces of evil, who was responsible for the creation of the despised material world and was wholly alien to the supreme God of goodness.

democracy, literally, rule by the people (from the Greek *dēmos*, "people," and *kratos*, "rule"). The term has several different senses in contemporary usage: (1) a form of government in which the right to make political decisions is exercised directly by the whole body of citizens, acting under procedures of majority rule, usually known as direct democracy, (2) a form of government in which the citizens exercise the same right not in person but through representatives chosen by and responsible to them, known as representative democracy, (3) a form of government, usually a representative democracy, in which the powers of the majority are exercised within a framework of constitutional restraints designed to guarantee all citizens the enjoyment of certain individual or collective rights, such as freedom of speech and religion, known as liberal, or constitutional, democracy.

Democracy had its beginnings in certain of the city-states of ancient Greece in which the whole citizen body formed the legislature, a

system made possible by the fact that a city-state's population rarely exceeded 10,000 persons and that women and slaves enjoyed no political rights. Citizens were eligible for a large variety of executive and judicial offices, some of which were filled by elections, others being assigned by lot. There was no separation of powers, and all officials were fully responsible to the popular assembly, which was qualified to act in executive and judicial as well as legislative matters.

Greek democracy was a brief historical episode that had little direct influence on the practice of modern states. From the fall of the Greek city-state to the rise of modern constitutionalism, there was a gap of 2,000 years in the practice of democracy.

Modern democratic ideas were shaped to a large extent by ideas and institutions of medieval Europe, notably the concept of divine, natural, and customary law as a restraint on the exercise of power. Democratic practices also grew out of European kings' practice of seeking approval of their policies, including the right to levy taxes, by consulting the different "estates," or group interests, in the realm. Gatherings of representatives of these interests were the origin of modern parliaments and legislative assemblies. Contributing to their emergence were profound intellectual and social developments, notably the emergence of concepts of natural rights and political equality during the Enlightenment and the American and French revolutions.

Representative parliaments, freely elected under universal franchise, became in the 19th and 20th centuries the central institutions of democratic governments. In many countries, democracy implied competition for office, freedom of speech and the press, and the rule of law.

The communist definition of democracy in the 20th century was quite different. The "peoples' republics" of the Soviet bloc evaded Western criteria and "elected" officials without competition from a single authorized party slate. Their argument was that political consensus and collective ownership of the means of production were sufficient to ensure that the will of the people would be carried out.

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Democratic Centralist, Russian *DEMOKRATICHESKY TSENTRALIST*, in Soviet history, member of an opposition group within the Communist Party that objected to the growing centralization of power in party and government organs.

The group developed during 1919–20 as the central government and party organs, responding to practical needs created by the Russian Civil War, tightened their control over local soviets and party units. Led by Timofey V. Saprionov, Vladimir M. Smirnov, and Valerian V. Osinsky (Obolensky), the group was composed largely of intellectuals, many of whom had opposed the centralization of state control over industry in 1918. The Democratic Centralists continued their protest through 1920; but at the 10th Party Congress (March 1921) opposition groups were condemned, and the Democratic Centralists, satisfied by the passage of resolutions supporting organizational reforms, became temporarily inactive.

They revived their protests, however, as the party failed to implement its resolutions. In 1923 they joined other opposition elements to criticize the central party leadership (Declaration of the Forty-Six, presented to the Politburo on Oct. 15, 1923), and in 1926–27 they sided with the opposition against Joseph Stalin's increasing domination of the party. But Stalin defeated the opposition; at the 15th Party Congress (December 1927), 18 Democratic Centralists were expelled from the party. During the purges of the 1930s most of

the Democratic Centralists were arrested and either sent to labour camps or executed.

Democratic Constitutional Rally, also called *DEMOCRATIC CONSTITUTIONAL ASSEMBLY*, formerly (1964–88) *DESTOURIAN SOCIALIST PARTY*, or (1934–64) *NEO-DESTOUR*, French *RASSEMBLEMENT CONSTITUTIONNEL DÉMOCRATIQUE*, *PARTI SOCIALISTE DESTOURIEN*, or *NEO-DESTOUR*, Tunisian political party that led the movement for independence from France (1956) and ruled Tunisia thereafter.

Neo-Destour was formed in 1934 by discontented young members of the more conservative Destour. After a bitter struggle with the parent organization, it became the predominant party under the leadership of Habib Bourguiba in 1937. Harassed by French authorities throughout the 1940s, it began an armed rebellion in 1953 that led to Tunisian independence in 1956.

A Neo-Destour government was then formed. In 1958 Bourguiba was appointed the first premier of Tunisia and in 1959 was overwhelmingly voted president. Internally, however, Neo-Destour had begun to split in the early 1950s, one group supporting Bourguiba, the other aligning itself with Salah Ben Yusuf, who had led the party when Bourguiba was imprisoned by the French. Ben Yusuf was expelled from the party in 1955, established himself in Cairo, and initiated a guerrilla campaign against Neo-Destour, the French, and Bourguiba. After several years of terrorist activity, Ben Yusuf was found murdered on Aug. 14, 1961, and his followers soon disappeared.

The party meanwhile consolidated its hold on all levels of Tunisian society and constituted itself as Tunisia's sole political party, renaming itself in 1964 and again in 1988. Not until 1981 were opposition parties permitted in Tunisia.

Democratic Party (Japan): see *Minseitō*.

Democratic Party, liberal political party in the Republic of South Africa that was established in 1989 by the merger of the Progressive Federal Party (*q.v.*) with two smaller liberal parties, the National Democratic Movement and the Independent Party. The Democratic Party supported full voting and other civil rights for South Africa's black majority and supported constitutional changes toward that end.

Democratic Party, in the United States, one of the two major political parties. Its traditional symbol is the donkey, and its theme song, since the 1930s, has been "Happy Days Are Here Again."

The party can be traced to 1792, when a national group of voters began supporting Thomas Jefferson with the name Republicans, or Jeffersonian Republicans, to emphasize antimonarchical sentiments. The party, or faction, was known by various designations until, during the presidency of Andrew Jackson in the 1830s, the party adopted its present name.

Jefferson had established the party on the principle of popular government, but its early presidents—Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, and John Quincy Adams—were aristocrats by birth, breeding, and education. Not until 1829, when Jackson became president, did a so-called "man of the people" enter the White House.

Between 1837, when Jackson retired, and 1860, four Democratic presidents—Martin Van Buren, James K. Polk, Franklin Pierce, and James Buchanan—were elected. The Democrats won every presidential election except those of 1840 and 1848. But during the 1840s and '50s the party began to undergo serious internal strains over the issue of slav-

ery and its extension to the Western territories. Southern Democrats, led by Jefferson Davis, insisted on the protection of slavery in all the territories, a demand buttressed by the Supreme Court's Dred Scott decision of 1857. Northern Democrats, led by Stephen A. Douglas, advocated the doctrine of popular sovereignty, under which the settlers in a territory could vote to ban slavery from their midst. The party split over the slavery issue in 1860 at its presidential convention in Charleston, S.C. The Northern Democrats nominated Douglas as their presidential candidate, and the Southern Democrats adopted a proslavery stance and nominated John C. Breckinridge as their presidential candidate. This North-South split proved disastrous to the Democrats; the newly formed, antislavery Republican Party won its first national victory under Abraham Lincoln in 1860, receiving a majority of votes in the electoral college because of the split.

From 1860 to 1900 the Democratic Party held the presidency for only eight years, during the two terms of Grover Cleveland (1885–89, 1893–97). In the postwar decades white Southerners associated the Republican Party both with the prosecution of the Civil War and with Radical Reconstruction; these voters subsequently remained firmly Democratic until the mid-20th century. The Democratic Party at this time was basically conservative and agrarian-oriented; its members were opposed to big business and protective tariffs and in favour of cheap-money policies. In 1896 the party once more split disastrously over the free-silver and Populist program of its presidential candidate, William Jennings Bryan, who lost that year's election. Through their support of economic radicalism under Bryan's leadership, the Democrats once again after 1896 became a minority party.

But the need for government to regulate America's increasingly industrialized and corporatized economy began to result in the early 20th century in the party's gradual resurgence. The Democrats returned to power in 1912 with Woodrow Wilson, mainly because the Republican vote was divided between William Howard Taft and the Progressive Party candidate, Theodore Roosevelt. Under the slogan of the New Freedom, Wilson obtained legislation for a broader federal regulation of banking and industry, among other reforms. Wilson was reelected in 1916, but his idealistic stance ultimately proved less attractive to the public than the Republicans' frank embrace of big business amid the spectacular prosperity of the 1920s. The Democrats lost the presidential elections of 1920, 1924, and 1928.

The Great Depression and the Republicans' evident inability or unwillingness to take governmental action against its grievous consequences swept the Democratic Party back into power in 1932 under the candidacy of Franklin D. Roosevelt. Roosevelt's vigorous New Deal policies and his inspired political skills brought small farmers into coalition with other groups that were to become firmly Democratic—Northern urban voting blocs, organized labour, blacks and other minorities, liberals, intellectuals, and reformers. This coalition enabled the Democratic Party to retain the presidency until 1952, turned it into the majority party in the country, and gave it control, of at least one and usually both houses of Congress throughout the rest of the 20th century.

The Democrats lost the presidency in 1952 and did not regain it until John F. Kennedy's election in 1960. The party's role in championing civil-rights and desegregation legislation under Kennedy and his successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, lost it the traditional allegiance of many of its former Southern supporters.

Johnson was elected president by a landslide in 1964. But widespread popular support for Johnson's liberal Great Society legislative program was largely negated by bitter opposition to American participation in the Vietnam War, and the divided Democrats lost the 1968 presidential election to the Republicans. The Democrats recovered the presidency for one term under Jimmy Carter (1977–81). But Carter was defeated for reelection by the conservative Republican Ronald W. Reagan, who was succeeded in 1988 by Republican George Bush. The Democrats continued control of Congress, however, except briefly in the Senate (1981–87).

Democratic Party of the Left, Italian PARTITO DEMOCRATICO DI SINISTRA, formerly (1921–91) ITALIAN COMMUNIST PARTY, second largest of Italy's two major political parties and western Europe's largest communist party.

Dissidents of the Italian Socialist Party's extreme left wing founded the PCI (Partito Comunista Italiano) in January 1921. The new party matured quickly, sending deputies to parliament before Benito Mussolini's Fascists outlawed all political parties in 1926. After that year, the PCI went underground to establish an organization that later proved important to the Italian Resistance.

After World War II, the PCI joined five other anti-Fascist parties in coalition governments until May 1947, when the Christian Democrat premier Alcide De Gasperi excluded both the PCI and the Italian Socialist Party from a new government. The PCI's consistent success at the polls ensured that it would continue to influence Italy's political life. In particular, the communists' ability to win votes away from the socialists' left wing affected the policies of that important party.

In 1956, when the revelation of Joseph Stalin's crimes was followed by the Soviet Union's suppression of the Hungarian revolt, communist leader Palmiro Togliatti helped dissociate the party from the Soviet Union by proposing the concept of "polycentrism," a form of limited independence among communist parties. After Togliatti's death in 1964, the PCI nearly split into "Russian" and "Italian" wings over this concept. Despite this conflict and other splits to the left, the PCI won 26.9 percent of the vote in the 1968 parliamentary elections. This victory, together with the PCI's apparent acceptance of democratic processes in 1969, raised the question of communist participation in government—a question that bitterly divided the governing coalitions thereafter.

Enrico Berlinguer, who led the party from 1972 until his death in 1984, became one of Europe's leading proponents of "Eurocommunism," or "national communism," which advocated the flexible adjustment of communist principles to national or local needs and conditions. In the 1980s, with the decline of the communist parties of Spain and France, the concept of Eurocommunism faded. By the late 1980s, events in eastern Europe made the communist label increasingly distasteful to many in the party. In an effort to consolidate left-wing forces and to create a broader base for opposition to the Christian Democrats, the party changed its name in 1991.

Democratic Progressive Party (DPP), Taiwanese political party formed in 1986 by a group of independents who initially sought self-determination for the Taiwanese people, democratic freedoms, the establishment of economic ties with China, and a multiparty system.

Despite a ban on new parties (part of the martial law regulations that were in effect from 1949 to 1987), the DPP was informally organized in 1983 and was the first opposition party to be officially recognized by the government (1986). It won 21 of 101 parliamentary seats in 1989.

Democratic-Republican Party, in U.S. history, offshoot of the Republican Party (*q.v.*; 1801–25), or Jeffersonian Republicans, and the forerunner of the modern Democratic Party.

Democratic Socialist Party (Italy): *see* Italian Democratic Socialist Party.

Democratic Socialist Party, Japanese MINSHATŌ, formerly (1960–69) MINSHU SHAKAI-TŌ, Japanese political party formed in 1960 by moderate socialists who had broken away from the Japanese Socialist Party the year before because of its alleged Marxist dogmatism and its definition of itself as a "class" party. The main base of the Democratic Socialist Party is the Dōmei Kaigi, the second largest labour-union confederation in Japan; and it favours a moderate evolution of socialism, with at first the improvement of workers' welfare and the nationalization of only a few key industries. It avoids any left coalition that would include the communists.

Democrazia Cristiana (Italian political party): *see* Christian Democratic Party.

Democritus (b. c. 460 BC—d. c. 370), Greek philosopher whose theories were important in the development of the atomic theory of the universe.

Knowledge of Democritus' life is largely limited to untrustworthy tradition: it seems that he was a wealthy citizen of Abdera, in Thrace; that he traveled widely in the East; and that he lived to a great age. According to Diogenes Laërtius, his works numbered 73; only a few hundred fragments have survived, mostly from his treatises on ethics.

Democritus' physical and cosmological doctrines were an elaborated and systematized version of those of his teacher, Leucippus. To account for the world's changing physical phenomena, Democritus asserted that space, or the Void, had an equal right with reality, or Being, to be considered existent. He conceived of the Void as a vacuum, an infinite space in which moved an infinite number of atoms that made up Being (*i.e.*, the physical world). These atoms are eternal and invisible; absolutely small, so small that their size cannot be diminished (hence the name *atomon*, or "indivisible"); absolutely full and incompressible, as they are without pores and entirely fill the space they occupy; and homogeneous, differing only in shape, arrangement, position, and magnitude. But, while atoms thus differ in quantity, differences of quality are only apparent, owing to the impressions caused on our senses by different configurations and combinations of atoms. A thing is hot or cold, sweet or bitter, or hard or soft only by convention. Thus, the atoms of water and iron are the same, but those of water, being smooth and round and therefore unable to hook onto one another, roll over and over like small globes, whereas those of iron, being rough, jagged, and uneven, cling together and form a solid body. Because all phenomena are composed of the same eternal atoms, it may be said that nothing comes into being or perishes in the absolute sense of the words, although the compounds made out of the atoms are liable to increase and decrease, explaining a thing's appearance and disappearance, or "birth" and "death."

Democritus explained the origin of the universe as follows. The original motion of the atoms was in all directions—it was a sort of "vibration"; hence there resulted collisions and, in particular, a whirling movement, whereby similar atoms were brought together and united to form larger bodies and worlds. This happened not as the result of any purpose or design but rather merely as the result of "necessity"; *i.e.*, it is the normal manifestation of the nature of the atoms themselves. Atoms and void being infinite in number and extent, and motion having always existed, there

must always have been an infinite number of worlds, all consisting of similar atoms in various stages of growth and decay.

Democritus devoted considerable attention to perception and knowledge. He asserted, for example, that sensations are changes produced in the soul by atoms emitted from other objects that impinge on it; the atoms of the soul can be affected only by the contact of other atoms. But sensations such as sweet and bitter are not as such inherent in the emitted atoms, for they result from effects caused merely by the size and shape of the atoms; e.g., sweet taste is due to round and not excessively small atoms. Democritus also was the first to attempt to explain colour, which he thought was due to the "position" (which he differentiated from shape) of the constituent atoms of compounds. The sensation of white, for instance, is caused by atoms that are smooth and flat so as to cast no shadow; the sensation of black is caused by rough, uneven atoms.

Democritus attributed popular belief in the gods to a desire to explain extraordinary phenomena (thunder, lightning, earthquakes) by reference to superhuman agency. His ethical system, founded on a practical basis, posited an ultimate good ("cheerfulness") that was "a state in which the soul lives peacefully and tranquilly, undisturbed by fear or superstition or any other feeling."

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demography, statistical study of human populations, especially with reference to size and density, distribution, and vital statistics (births, marriages, deaths, etc.). Contemporary demographic concerns include the "population explosion," the interplay between population and economic development, the effects of birth control, urban congestion, illegal immigration, and labour force statistics. For a discussion of the objects of demographic study, see population (in biology and physical anthropology). See also census.

The roots of statistical demography may be found in the work of the Englishman John Graunt; his work *Natural and Political Observations . . . Made upon the Bills of Mortality* (1662) examines the weekly records of deaths and baptisms (the "bills of mortality") dating back to the end of the 16th century. In search of statistical regularities, Graunt made an estimate of the male-female ratios at birth and death-birth ratios in London and rural communities. His most celebrated contribution was his construction of the first mortality table; by analyzing birth and death rates he was able to estimate roughly the number of men currently of military age, the number of women of childbearing age, the total number of families, and even the population of London. Another such study was undertaken by Johann Süssmilch, whose *Die Göttliche Ordnung* (1741; "The Divine Order") analyzed the populations of 1,056 parishes in Brandenburg and various cities and provinces of Prussia. Süssmilch constructed several mortality tables, most notably the first such table for the whole population of Prussia (1765).

In 18th-century Europe, the development of life insurance and growing attention to public health produced an increased awareness of the significance of mortality studies. Civil registries of significant public events (births, deaths, and marriages) began in the 19th century to supplant church registries. Censuses of the population also developed during the 19th century.

For most of the 19th century, demographic studies continued to emphasize the phenomenon of mortality; it was not until demographers noted that a considerable decline of

fertility had taken place in the industrialized countries during the second half of the 19th century, that they began to study fertility and reproduction with as much interest as they studied mortality. The phenomenon of differential fertility, with its implications about selection and more particularly about the evolution of intelligence, evoked widespread interest as shown in Charles Darwin's theories and in the works of Francis Galton. During the period between the two world wars, demography took on a broader, interdisciplinary character. In 1928 the International Union for the Scientific Study of Population was founded.

In spite of increasing sophistication in the analysis of statistics and the proliferation of research institutes, periodicals, and international organizations devoted to the science of demographics, the basis for most demographic research continues to lie in population censuses and the registration of vital statistics. Even the most meticulously gathered census is not completely accurate, however, and birth, death, and marriage statistics—based on certificates drawn up by local authorities—are accurate mostly in countries with a long tradition of registry.

demoiselle (fish): see damselfish.

Demolder, Eugène (b. Dec. 16, 1862, Brussels, Belg.—d. Oct. 8, 1919, Essonnes, Fr.), Belgian novelist and storywriter, writing in French, who was a member of the Jeune Belgique ("Young Belgium") literary renaissance of the late 19th century.

He was trained to be a lawyer, and his memoirs, *Sous la robe* (1897; "Under the Robe"), provide a record of the professional and cultural life of a class that was in the forefront of Belgian literary reform. Demolder's novels are noted for their evocation of atmosphere and may be regarded more as a sequence of tableaux than as coherent narratives.

In early works, such as *La Légende d'Yperdamme* (1891), he transposed stories from the Gospels into Flemish medieval settings whose scenes have been compared with the paintings of Bruegel. In *La Route d'émeraude* (1899; "The Emerald Road") Demolder provided rich graphic descriptions in his story of the life of a would-be painter in the Low Countries in the 17th century. Demolder's other important novel, *Le Jardinier de la Pompadour* (1904; "Madame de Pompadour's Gardener"), is set in France; in this evocation of an elegant period, Demolder's style and subject are in perfect harmony. His *L'Espagne en auto* (1906; "Spain by Auto") is one of the earliest narratives of automobile travel.

demon, also spelled DAEMON, in religions worldwide, any of numerous malevolent spiritual beings, powers, or principles that mediate between the transcendent and temporal realms.

A brief treatment of demons follows. For full treatment, see MACROPAEDIA: Doctrines and Dogmas, Religious.

In ancient Greece a demon (Greek *daimon*) was a supernatural power, and the term was employed almost interchangeably by Homer with *theos*, for a god. The distinction was that *theos* emphasized the personality of the god, and demon his activity. Hence, demon was regularly applied to sudden or unexpected supernatural interventions not attributable to any particular deity. It became commonly the power determining a person's fate, and an individual could have a personal demon. As early as Hesiod, the dead of the Golden Age became demons; and later philosophical speculation envisaged these beings as lower than the gods (possibly mortal) but as superior to humanity. The Christians, therefore, attributed the actions of the pagan gods to demons identified as fallen angels.

In Zoroastrianism, a religion founded by

the 6th-century-bc Persian prophet Zoroaster, the hierarchy of demons (*daevas*) is headed by Angra Mainyu (later called Ahriman), the Evil, or Destructive, Spirit. The demons are in constant battle with Ahura Mazdā (later called Ormazd), the Good Lord.

The hierarchy of demons in Judaism, which is rooted in ancient Middle Eastern and Zoroastrian demonology after the postexilic period (after 538 bc), is quite varied. The prince of the forces of evil (Hebrew *shedim*, meaning "demons" and applied to foreign gods, or *se'irim*, meaning "hairy demons"), who often were believed to inhabit desert wastes, ruins, and graves and to inflict humanity with various physical, psychological, and spiritual disorders, was called by different names: Satan (the Antagonist), Belial (the spirit of perversion, darkness, and destruction), Mastema (Enmity, or Opposition), and other names. Though the Old Testament refers to Satan as the prosecutor of God's celestial court (Zech. 3; Job 1–2), a hierarchy of demons under Satan or other princes of evil was developed in intertestamental literature and later Judaism.

The hierarchy of demons in Christianity is based on various sources: Jewish, Zoroastrian, Gnostic (a syncretistic religious dualistic-belief system in which matter is viewed as evil, the spirit good, and salvation as being attainable through esoteric knowledge, or gnosis), and the indigenous religions that succumbed to Christian missionizing. In the New Testament, Jesus speaks of Beelzebub as the chief of demons and equates him with Satan. In the European Middle Ages and the Reformation period, various hierarchies of demons were developed, such as that associated with the seven deadly sins: Lucifer (pride), Mammon (avarice), Asmodeus (lechery), Satan (anger), Beelzebub (gluttony), Leviathan (envy), and Belphegor (sloth).

The Islāmic hierarchy of demons is headed by Iblis (the devil), who also is called *Shayṭān* (Satan) or *'aduw Allāh* ("Enemy of God"). Based to a great extent on Jewish and Christian demonology, Iblis became the leader of a host of *jinn*, spiritual beings that generally bode evil.

In Hinduism, the *asuras* (the Zoroastrian *ahuras*) are the demons who oppose the *devas* (the gods). Among the various classes of *asuras* are *nāgas* (serpent demons), Ahi (the demon of drought), and Kāṃsa (an archdemon). Demons that afflict humans include the *rākṣasas* (grotesque beings who haunt cemeteries, impel the performance of foolish acts, and attack *sādhus* (saintly men) and *piśacas* (beings who haunt places where violent deaths have occurred)).

Buddhists often view their demons as forces that inhibit the achievement of Nirvāṇa (bliss, or the extinction of desire); an important example is Māra, an arch tempter, who, with his daughters, Rati (Desire), Rāga (Pleasure), and Tanhā (Restlessness), attempted to dissuade Siddhārtha Gautama, the Buddha, from achieving his enlightenment. As Mahāyāna (Greater Vehicle) Buddhism spread to Tibet, China, and Japan, many of the demons of the folk religions of these areas (e.g., the Chinese *kuei-shen*; the Japanese *oni*) were incorporated into Buddhist beliefs.

Demonesi Insulae (Turkey): see Kızıl Adalar.

Demophoon, in Greek mythology, the son of Celeus, king of Eleusis. The goddess Demeter, wandering in search of her daughter Persephone, became Demophoon's nurse. As an act of kindness to those who had sheltered her, she attempted to immortalize him by burning out his mortal parts but was surprised in the act by his mother, who thought that she was harming the boy. Incensed, Demeter quickly withdrew the child from the fire, thus leaving

him susceptible to death. In another version the surprise resulted in Demophoon's death in the flames. Shortly thereafter Demeter departed from Eleusis.

Demopolis, city, Marengo county, western Alabama, U.S., at the confluence of the Tombigbee and Black Warrior rivers, which form a navigable waterway. Founded in 1817 by Napoleonic exiles who unsuccessfully tried to raise olives and grapes, it was named Demopolis (Greek: "city of the people") and was chartered in 1819. A cotton-plantation society flourished (1830–60), and many fine Greek Revival mansions were built, including Gaineswood and Bluff Hall. Later, beef cattle, dairying, soy beans, and lumbering replaced dependence on cotton. Manufacturing industries (chiefly lingerie, paperboard and pulp, and chemicals) also developed, with shipping provided by the Demopolis Inland State Docks (1956). Recreational activities focus on nearby Lake Demopolis, with a 400-mi (640-km) shoreline, formed by the dam on the Tombigbee. Pop. (1990) 7,512.

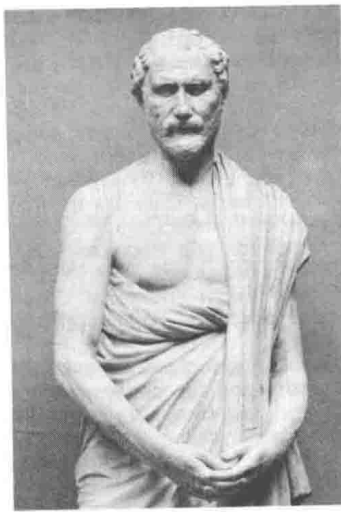
dēmos (in ancient Greece): *see* deme.

Demosthenes (d. 413 BC), Athenian general who proved to be an imaginative strategist during the Peloponnesian War (Athens versus Sparta, 431–404).

In 426 he unsuccessfully besieged the Corinthian colony of Leukas and was severely defeated in an attempted invasion of Aetolia. Demosthenes redeemed these failures by successfully defending Naupactus, the Athenian naval base in the Gulf of Corinth, against a Spartan land attack and by winning two decisive victories over the Spartans, at Olpae near Argos and at Idomene in the hills to the north of Argos. In 425 he was authorized to use the fleet for operations around the Peloponnese. He fortified the promontory of Pylos in Messenia and, while the rest of the flotilla sailed on to Sicily, remained with five ships at the harbour of the peninsula at Pylos. There he managed to resist Spartan attacks. The Spartans occupied the neighbouring peninsula of Sphacteria but were besieged after their ships were driven off by the returning Athenian fleet. The politician Cleon joined Demosthenes in defeating and capturing the stranded foe.

In 424 Demosthenes made an abortive attack on Megara and launched an unsuccessful invasion of Boeotia. In 413 he was sent to reinforce the general Nicias during the Athenian siege of Syracuse. Failing in a night attack on the high ground overlooking the city, Demosthenes advised immediate retreat but was overruled by Nicias. When the retreat finally began, the division under Demosthenes fell behind and was forced to surrender. Demosthenes was put to death by his captors.

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Demosthenes, marble statue, detail of a Roman copy of a Greek original of c. 280 BC; in the Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen

By courtesy of the Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen

with a delicate physique that prevented him from receiving the customary Greek gymnastic education, led him to train himself as an orator. He also studied legal rhetoric. In his *Parallel Lives* Plutarch, the Greek historian and biographer, relates that Demosthenes built an underground study where he exercised his voice, shaving one half of his head so that he could not go out in public. Plutarch adds that Demosthenes had a speech defect, "an inarticulate and stammering pronunciation" that he overcame by speaking with pebbles in his mouth and by reciting verses when running or out of breath. He also practiced speaking before a large mirror.

Despite this self-improvement program, his first youthful speaking efforts in the public Assembly met with disaster; he was laughed at by his audiences. His lawsuits against Aphobus and two other guardians in 363 were more successful; they produced little money, but he learned much about speaking strategy and methods of argument. Three of his speeches against Aphobus and two against the sculptor Antenor have survived.

Demosthenes as speech writer. At the age of 20 the young Demosthenes found himself without his fortune, without a trade or profession, and with seemingly little prospect for success in any field. But his rhetorical skill had been noticed. In 4th-century democratic Athens every citizen who wished to prosecute a lawsuit or to defend himself against accusation had to do the speaking himself. Not every citizen, of course, possessed sufficient skill to write his own speeches—a fact that gave rise to the practice of employing a speech writer (logographer) to prepare a speech for such occasions. Demosthenes' skill in his speeches against Aphobus was recognized by wealthier men in need of a logographer; he soon acquired wealthy and powerful clients willing to pay well for his services. Thus began a lifelong career that he continued even during his most intense involvement in the political struggle against Philip of Macedon, much as a modern lawyer might retain a private practice while engaged in public affairs.

Demosthenes was already 30 when, in 354, he made his first major speech before the Assembly. The speech, "On the Navy Boards," was a marked success. The Assembly or Ecclesia (Ekklesia), a legislative body composed of all adult male Athenian citizens, had convened to consider a rumoured threat against Athens by the King of Persia. Demosthenes' tightly reasoned oration helped persuade the Athenians to build up their naval strength quietly to show the Persians that, though Athens

would not launch an attack, it was ready to fight. He pointed out that, while Athens would have no allies if it attacked first, every other Greek city-state would join Athens if the Persians were the first to attack. Here, for the first time, Demosthenes sounded a theme that was to run through his whole public career—the policy that Athens could best keep its democratic freedom by remaining independent of all other cities while, on the other hand, being ready to make temporary alliances whenever danger threatened. In the same speech, revealing his penchant for careful fiscal planning, he proposed an elaborate revision of the method used to tax the wealthy to raise money for ships.

Leader of the democratic faction. From this point on (354), Demosthenes' career is virtually the history of Athenian foreign policy. It was not very long before his oratorical skill made him, in effect, the leader of what today might be called the democratic party. Some interests, especially the wealthy, would have preferred an oligarchy instead of a democracy; many merchants would have preferred peace at almost any price. While they agreed that the Macedonians were barbarians, most Athenian citizens distrusted other Greek city-states such as Thebes and Sparta. The Athenian Assembly was a loosely organized, often tumultuous body of up to 6,000 male citizens; it was capable of shouting down a speaker it did not like or of routing him with laughter. Any citizen could speak, but the criteria were so high that only the best orators survived for long. In this turbulent arena Demosthenes stood out. Contemporaries refer to him as "a water drinker"; that is, a severe and perhaps forbidding personality. Although name-calling was common practice in the Assembly, Demosthenes' wit was exceptionally caustic; when defending himself in his speech "On the Crown" against the attacks of his lifelong rival, Aeschines, he did not scruple to call him "sly beast," "idle babbler," "court hack," and "polluted." Demosthenes was not merely better at abuse than most; he also realized the advantage of making an audience lose respect for his opponent.

He was an assiduous student of Greek history, using detailed historical parallels in almost all his public speeches, and reportedly copied out Thucydides' *History of the Peloponnesian War* eight times in order to improve his command of language and to absorb its history. He constantly asked the Athenians to recall their own history, to remember their past belief in democracy, and to remind themselves how much they hated tyrants. His love of democracy gives his speeches a humanistic breadth that makes them interesting even today. Demosthenes was also extremely industrious. Plutarch says that it was his habit to sit down at night and go over the conversations and speeches he had heard during the day, experimenting with various replies or speeches that could have been made. He excelled whenever he could prepare his speeches carefully in advance, but the nature of Athenian political life must often have forced him to reply to an opponent on the spur of the moment. Unfortunately, because all of the surviving speeches are carefully edited texts, it cannot be established how often Demosthenes spoke extemporaneously.

His famous speech in 354 "On the Navy Boards" was addressed to the threat from the East. Meanwhile, in Macedonia, to the north, the young king Philip, almost the same age as Demosthenes, was gradually annexing Greek cities south of his borders. In 356 Philip had captured an Athenian possession in Thrace, after hoodwinking the Athenians with promises to protect the city, and in 354 he took another Athenian possession. By 353 both Sparta and Arcadia were asking Athens for military assistance against Philip. When he continued

Demosthenes (b. 384 BC, Athens—d. Oct. 12, 322, Calauria, Argolis), Athenian statesman, recognized as the greatest of ancient Greek orators, who roused Athens to oppose Philip of Macedon and, later, his son Alexander the Great. His speeches provide valuable information on the political, social, and economic life of 4th-century Athens.

Heritage and youth. Demosthenes, a contemporary of Plato and Aristotle, was the son of a wealthy sword maker. His father died when he was seven, leaving a large inheritance, but the boy's unscrupulous guardians took advantage of their position, and when he came of age Demosthenes received very little of his estate. His strong desire to sue his guardian, Aphobus, in the courts, coupled

to move south, employing bribery and threat as well as military force, the Athenians sent a small force to close off the pass at Thermopylae. Although Philip turned aside to the coast of Thrace, avoiding a direct confrontation with Athens, his intentions were clear. Yet many Athenians continued to believe that Philip's threat was transitory.

The Philippics. Early in 351 Demosthenes delivered a speech against Philip, the so-called "First Philippic," that established him as the leader of the opposition to Macedonian imperial ambitions. For the next 29 years Demosthenes never wavered; as Plutarch says, "The object which he chose for himself in the commonwealth was noble and just, the defense of the Grecians against Philip." In the "First Philippic" he reminded the Athenians that they had once defeated the Spartans, who were as strong as Philip, and sarcastically pointed out that Philip would never have conquered their territories if he had been as timid as the Athenians seemed to be. He concluded by challenging his countrymen to take their affairs in their own hands rather than let Philip win by default.

This goading speech nonetheless failed to rouse the Athenians. Philip advanced into Chalcidice, threatening the city of Olynthus, which appealed to Athens. In 349 Demosthenes delivered three stirring speeches (the "Olynthiatics") to elicit aid for Olynthus, but the city fell the following year without significant help from Athens. Finally, Philip and the Athenians agreed in April 346 to the Peace of Philocrates; Demosthenes, partly to gain time to prepare for the long struggle he saw ahead, agreed to the peace and went as one of the ambassadors to negotiate the treaty with Philip. During the negotiations, Philip, recognizing Demosthenes' eloquence as a threat to his plans, ignored him and addressed his fellow ambassador Aeschines instead. The two men returned from the embassy bitter foes, Demosthenes denouncing Aeschines and Aeschines assuring everyone of Philip's good intentions.

In his oration "On the Peace" late in 346 Demosthenes, though condemning the terms of the treaty of Philocrates, argued that it had to be honoured. Meanwhile, Philip continued his tactic of setting the Greek city-states, such as Thebes and Sparta, against each other. Demosthenes was one of several ambassadors sent out on a futile tour of the Peloponnese to enlist support against Philip. In retaliation Philip protested to Athens about certain statements made by these ambassadors. Demosthenes' "Second Philippic," in 344, retorted that he would never have agreed to the Peace of Philocrates if he had known that Philip would not honour his word; moreover, he asserted, Aeschines and others had lulled the Athenians into a false sense of security. The issue came to a public trial in the autumn of 343, when Demosthenes, in his speech "The False Legation," accused Aeschines of rendering false reports, giving bad counsel, disobeying instructions, and being susceptible to bribery. The court, however, acquitted Aeschines.

The tangled pattern of threat and counter-threat continued into 341, until an Athenian general incurred Philip's wrath for operating too near one of his towns in the Chersonese. Philip demanded his recall, but Demosthenes replied in a speech, "On the Chersonese," that the motive behind the Macedonian's "scheming and contriving" was to weaken the Athenians' will to oppose Philip's conquests. "Philip is at war with us," he declared, "and has broken the peace." Shortly afterward, Demosthenes delivered his "Third Philippic," perhaps the most successful single speech in his long campaign against Philip. As a result, Demosthenes became controller of the navy and could thus carry out the naval reforms he had proposed in 354. In addition, a grand alliance was formed against Philip,

including Byzantium and former enemies of Athens, such as Thebes. Indecisive warfare followed, with Athens strong at sea but Philip nearly irresistible on land. The Macedonian army was well organized under a single brilliant commander who used cavalry in coordination with highly disciplined infantry, while the Greek alliance depended upon what was essentially a group of citizens' militia.

Disaster came in 338, when Philip defeated the allies in a climactic battle at Chaeronea in north central Greece. According to Plutarch, Demosthenes was in the battle but fled after dropping his arms. Whether or not he disgraced himself in this way, it was Demosthenes whom the people chose to deliver the funeral oration over the bodies of those slain in the battle. After the peace concluded by the Athenian orator and diplomat Demades, Philip acted with restraint; and, though the pro-Macedonian faction was naturally greatly strengthened by his victory, he refrained from occupying Athens. Demosthenes came under several forms of subtle legislative attack by Aeschines and others.

In 336 Greece was stunned by the news that Philip had been assassinated. When his son Alexander succeeded him, many Greeks believed that freedom was about to be restored. But within a year Alexander proved that he was an even more implacable foe than his father—for, when the city of Thebes rebelled against him in 335, he destroyed it. A string of victories emboldened Alexander to demand that Athens surrender Demosthenes and seven other orators who had opposed his father and himself; only a special embassy to Alexander succeeded in having that order rescinded. Shortly thereafter, Alexander began his invasion of Asia that took him as far as India and left Athens free of direct military threat from him.

In 330, nevertheless, judging that the pro-Alexandrian faction was still strong in Athens, Aeschines pressed his charges of impropriety against Ctesiphon—first made six years earlier—for proposing that Demosthenes be awarded a gold crown for his services to the state. The real target was, of course, Demosthenes, for Aeschines accused Ctesiphon of making a false statement when he praised the orator's patriotism and public service. The resulting oratorical confrontation between Aeschines and Demosthenes aroused interest throughout Greece, because not only Demosthenes but also Athenian policy of the past 20 years was on trial. A jury of 500 citizens was the minimum required in such cases, but a large crowd of other Athenians and even foreigners flocked to the debate.

Delivery of "On the Crown." The oration "On the Crown," Demosthenes' reply to Aeschines' charges of vacillating in his policy, accepting bribes, and displaying cowardice in battle, is universally acknowledged as a masterpiece of rhetorical art. It covers the entire two decades of Greek involvement with Philip and Alexander, contrasting Demosthenes' policies in every case with what he terms the treachery of Aeschines as an agent of the Macedonians. As always, his command of historical detail is impressive. Over and over again he asks his audience what needed to be done in a crisis and who did it. Addressing Aeschines directly, he says, "Your policies supported our enemy, mine, our country's." His scathing epithets picture Aeschines as a contemptible turncoat, a hireling of Philip. The jury's verdict was resoundingly clear—Aeschines failed to receive even one-fifth of the votes and was thus obliged to go into exile. Demosthenes and his policies had received a massive vote of popular approval.

Imprisonment and exile. Six years later, however, he was convicted of a grave crime and forced to flee from prison and himself go into exile. He was accused of taking 20 talents deposited in Athens by Harpalus, a

refugee from Alexander. Demosthenes was found guilty, fined 50 talents, and imprisoned. The circumstances of the case are still unclear. Demosthenes may well have intended to use the money for civic purposes, and it is perhaps significant that the court fined him only two and one-half times the amount involved instead of the 10 times usually levied in such cases. His escape from prison made it impossible for him to return to Athens to raise money for the fine. The onetime leader of the Athenians was now a refugee from his own people.

Another dramatic reversal occurred the very next year, however, when Alexander died. The power of the Macedonians seemed finally broken; a new alliance was concluded against them. The Athenians recalled Demosthenes from exile and provided money to pay his fine. But at the approach of Antipater, Alexander's successor, Demosthenes and other orators again fled the city. His former friend Demades then persuaded the Athenians to sentence Demosthenes to death. While fleeing Antipater's soldiers, he killed himself by taking poison. Following his long service to the state, which nonetheless ended in abandonment by the fickle Athenian citizenry, Demosthenes' death can be viewed as a symbol of the decline of Athenian democracy.

Influence and reputation. In the century following his death, the scholars at the Library of Alexandria carefully edited the manuscripts of his famous speeches. His fame was signaled in that, when the Roman orator Cicero delivered a series of speeches in 44 BC opposing Antony, in circumstances not unlike those in which Demosthenes opposed Philip, Cicero's speeches were called Philippics too. Roman schoolboys studied Demosthenes' speeches as part of their own oratorical training. During the European Middle Ages and Renaissance, his name was a synonym for eloquence. Modern scholars such as Werner Jaeger present a more dispassionate view by pointing to the highly complex political issues that Demosthenes handled with his oratorical skill.

(J.J.M./Ed.)

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Demotic Greek language, also called ROMAIK, Greek DEMOTIKI, or ROMAIIKI, the modern vernacular of Greece. In modern times it has been the standard spoken language and, by the 20th century, had become almost the sole language of Greek creative literature. In January 1976, by government order, it became the official language of the state, replacing Katharevusa Greek (*q.v.*) as the language for governmental and legal documents, in the courts and Parliament, in the schools, and in newspapers and other publications. (Katharevusa continued to be used in some legal documents and other technical writings in which there was a large body of established literature.)

Although the vocabulary, phonology, and grammar of ancient Greek remain the basis of Demotic Greek, they have been considerably modified and simplified. Foreign words and constructions that have penetrated the language in large numbers reflect the influence of various foreign powers that held sway in postclassical Greece or that exerted influence there, from the foundation of the eastern Roman Empire (AD 325) through the Crusades

to the Venetian and Turkish conquests. The Turkish domination, in particular, destroyed Greek literary continuity and development; and, after Greece regained its independence in the early 19th century, many nationalists despised the language of the people as degenerate; they tried to develop an artificial language, Katharevusa, as an approximation of the old classical norms. It was a deliberate archaization. When a military dictatorship arose in 1967, the new conservatism extended to language, and Katharevusa was strictly imposed in the schools. But after the restoration of political democracy in 1974, linguistic democracy followed suit, and Demotic—literally, the “popular” language—was given official sanction.

demotic script, Egyptian hieroglyphic writing of cursive form, in use in handwritten texts from the early 7th century BC until the 5th century AD. Demotic script derived from the earlier pictographic hieroglyphic inscriptions and the cursive hieratic script (*q.v.*), and it began to replace hieratic writing during the reign of Psamtik I (664–610 BC). By the 5th century BC, demotic script had come into use everywhere in Egypt for business and literary purposes, although hieratic remained in use for religious texts. The demotic script began to be displaced by Greek during the Ptolemaic period (304–30 BC), but hieratic graffiti left by the priests of Isis at Philae date as late as AD 452.

Dempsey, Jack, byname of WILLIAM HARRISON DEMPSEY, also called MANASSA MAULER (b. June 24, 1895, Manassa, Colo., U.S.—d. May 31, 1983, New York, N.Y.), American world heavyweight boxing champion, regarded by many as the apotheosis of the professional fighter. He held the title from July 4, 1919, when he knocked out Jess Willard in three rounds in Toledo, Ohio, until Sept. 23, 1926, when he lost a 10-round decision to Gene Tunney in Philadelphia.

Dempsey started boxing in 1914 under the name of Kid Blackie. In 1918 and early 1919 he compiled an impressive number of knockouts, most of them in the first round, to earn a fight with Willard. The 37-year-old champion proved to be no match for young Dempsey, who attacked ferociously from the starting bell and knocked Willard to the floor seven times in the first round. Even more primitive in its intensity was Dempsey's title defense against Argentine heavyweight Luis Angel Firpo in New York City on Sept. 14, 1923. After being knocked out of the ring in the first round, Dempsey battered Firpo into defeat in the second.

During the next three years Dempsey fought only exhibition matches, and, at the age of 31, he found that he had aged too much to deal with the carefully trained Tunney in their first fight. On Sept. 22, 1927, in Chicago, they met again in the famous “Battle of the Long Count,” in which Dempsey forfeited his chance for a seventh-round knockout by standing over the fallen Tunney rather than going to a neutral corner of the ring. Tunney recovered to win another 10-round decision.

In his boxing style, Dempsey kept on the offensive almost continuously, bobbing up and down and moving from side to side as he delivered short, swinging blows out of a crouch at blinding speed. His constant movement and the speed of his attack constituted his defense.

In the 1930s Dempsey appeared in many exhibitions but was never again a serious contender for the championship. In 1940 he had three knockout victories over unknown opponents before retiring to referee boxing and wrestling matches. In World War II he served as a lieutenant commander in the Coast Guard. From 1914 to 1940 he had 84 bouts, winning



Dempsey
UPI—EB Inc.

62, 51 by knockouts. He eventually became a successful restaurateur in New York City. His autobiography was published in 1977.

Dempster, Arthur Jeffrey (b. Aug. 14, 1886, Toronto, Ont., Can.—d. March 11, 1950, Stuart, Fla., U.S.), American physicist who built the first mass spectrometer, a device used to separate and measure the quantities of different charged particles, such as atomic nuclei or molecular fragments. It is useful in analyzing chemical composition and in determining the relative abundance of the different isotopes (type of nuclei) of an element.

Dempster discovered numerous nuclides, including uranium-235, which is used in atomic bombs. He built his first mass spectrometer in 1918 and in 1936, with Kenneth T. Bainbridge of the United States and J.H.E. Mattauch of Austria, developed a double-focusing type of



Dempster
The University of Chicago Archives

mass spectrograph, a device used to measure the mass of atomic nuclei. Thereafter he devoted his time almost exclusively to the development of mass spectrometry techniques.

Demre (Turkey): see Myra.

demurrer, in law, process whereby a party admits as true certain facts alleged by the opposition but asserts that they are not sufficient grounds for relief. A ruling on a demurrer can result in the quick disposition of a case resting on the point of law challenged in the demurrer.

In criminal law a demurrer is usually based upon some defect in the indictment or the claim that the facts presented do not constitute a felony or serious crime. In civil cases demurrers are also often based upon some error or omission. A general demurrer attacks the general substance of an indictment or plea; a special demurrer attacks its structure or form or one specific part of it.

Demuth, Charles (b. Nov. 8, 1883, Lancaster, Pa., U.S.—d. Oct. 23, 1935, Lancaster), painter who was a major influence in channeling modern European movements into American art and who was also a leading exponent of Precisionism (*q.v.*).

Demuth's early training was under Thomas Anshutz and W.M. Chase at the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts. Between 1907 and 1913 Demuth made several trips to Europe to study, and while in Paris he was attracted by the work of Marcel Duchamp and the Cubists, influences that lasted throughout his career. After returning to the United States, he illustrated works of several of his favourite authors, among them Henry James, Émile Zola, and Edgar Allan Poe. Moving gradually away from illustrative art, he next executed a series of watercolours of flowers, circuses, and café scenes that placed him in the first rank of watercolourists of his period. Late in his career, Demuth began to paint advertisements and billboards into such cityscapes as his “Buildings, Lancaster” (1930), in which bold, commercial lettering is complemented by the severely hard-edged abstraction of buildings. Among Demuth's best-known works are his poster portraits such as the tribute to the poet



“I Saw the Figure 5 in Gold,” oil on composition board by Charles Demuth, 1928; in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City

By courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City. The Alfred Stieglitz Collection, 1949

William Carlos Williams, “I Saw the Figure 5 in Gold.”

Den Bosch (The Netherlands): see 's Hertogenbosch.

Denakil Plain, also spelled DANAKIL, also called DANKALI, arid lowland of northeastern Ethiopia, bordering Djibouti. It lies at the northern extreme of the Great Rift Valley and the Awash River. Live volcanoes separate it from the Red Sea. Any water that comes into the plain evaporates there; no streams flow out from it. The Kobar Sink, a huge basin in the northern part of the plain, drops to 381 feet (116 m) below sea level. The Denakil Plain was formed by the evaporation of an inland sea. About 450 square miles (1,200 square km) is covered by salt; salt reserves are estimated at more than 1,000,000 tons (1,120,000 metric tons). The salt is cut into bars and carried by mule to other parts of Ethiopia. Nomadic pastoralists, related to the Afar people of Djibouti, are virtually the plain's only inhabitants. In the southern part of the plain lies Denakil National Park, which covers about 1,160 square miles (3,000 square km).

Denali National Park and Preserve, park and preserve in central Alaska, U.S., established in 1980 from the former Mount McKinley National Park (1917) and Denali National

Monument (1978). Denali ("The Great One") is the ancient Athapascan Indian name for Mount McKinley, the highest mountain in North America at 20,320 feet (6,194 m). Highlights of the park include the large glaciers of the Alaska Range and abundant wildlife. The total area is 7,930,000 acres (3,210,000 hectares).

denaturation, in biology, process modifying the molecular structure of a protein. Denaturation involves the breaking of many of the weak linkages, or bonds (e.g., hydrogen bonds), within a protein molecule that are responsible for the highly ordered structure of the protein in its natural (native) state. Denatured proteins have a looser, more random structure; most are insoluble. Denaturation can be brought about in various ways—e.g., by heating, by treatment with alkali, acid, urea, or detergents, and by vigorous shaking.

The original structure of some proteins can be regenerated upon removal of the denaturing agent and restoration of conditions favouring the native state. Proteins subject to this process, called renaturation, include serum albumin from blood, hemoglobin (the oxygen-carrying pigment of red blood cells), and the enzyme ribonuclease. The denaturation of many proteins, such as egg white, is irreversible. A common consequence of denaturation is loss of biological activity (e.g., loss of the catalytic ability of an enzyme).

Denbigh, Welsh DINBYCH, market town, Glyndŵr district, Clwyd county, Wales. After the conquest of Wales under Edward I, Henry de Lacy, 3rd Earl of Lincoln, founded a borough there in 1283 and built a castle, which withstood attack in 1402 by the rebel Owen Glendower, though the town itself was razed. In the 17th century the castle was besieged and later dismantled in connection with the English Civil Wars (1642–51). In the 15th and 16th centuries Denbigh was one of the most important towns in Wales. Denbigh is now mainly a market town with some modern industry. Pop. (1981) 7,783.

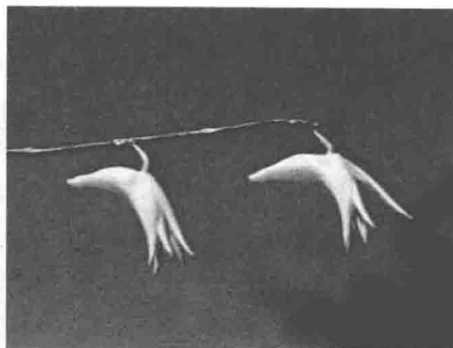
Denbighshire, Welsh SIR DINBYCH, historic county and region of northern Wales, bounded on the north by the Irish Sea. The River Conway (Conwy) forms most of the western boundary of the region. The northeastern reaches are roughly defined by the Clwydian Range. Broadly speaking, the region is coextensive with the ancient boundaries of Gwynedd-is-Conwy and Powys Fadog.

The high ground of Denbighshire is dotted with tumuli. Finds of gold and socketed axes dating from the later Bronze Age indicate that the upper Dee valley and the Vale of Clwyd had become important lines of movement by that time. Native hill fortresses such as Dinorben, and Roman statues of later times, show the importance of the north Wales coastal route. Inscribed stones at Gwytherin and Pen-trefoelas date from Roman times. Eliseg's Pillar, near Llangollen, tells of the struggle at Chester between the Britons and Aethelfrith's invading Northumbrians (c. 614). In the southeast is a section of Offa's Dyke. Among the ancient monuments of Denbighshire are the burial chamber at Capel Garmon and the beautiful, ruined Cistercian Valle Crucis Abbey (founded c. 1200), near Llangollen.

The county was formed by an act of Henry VIII out of the lordships of Denbigh, Ruthin, Rhos, and Rhyfoniog, which were roughly the midland between the rivers Conway and Clwyd, and the lordships of Bromfield, Yale, and Chirkland.

Dendera (Egypt): see Dandarah.

Dendrobium, genus of as many as 1,500 species of orchids that grow on other plants and are native to tropical and subtropical Asia, many Pacific islands, and Australia. Some species have small, pale flowers; others



Pigeon orchid (*Dendrobium crumenatum*)

Ivan Polunin—EB Inc.

have large, showy ones. The flowers may be borne singly, in groups, or on arching spikes. The lateral sepals of all *Dendrobium* flowers are joined at the base, forming a small sac. The pseudobulbs (swollen stems) are bulblike or reedlike and range in height from 5 cm to about 4.5 m (2 inches to 15 feet).

The pigeon orchid (*Dendrobium crumenatum*), a white-flowered species; the bull orchid (*D. taurinum*), a Philippine species with twisted, hornlike petals; and the cucumber orchid (*D. cucumerinum*), an Australian species with cucumber-like leaves, are popular members of the genus.

dendrochronology, or TREE-RING DATING, the scientific discipline concerned with dating and interpreting past events, particularly paleoclimates and climatic trends, based on the analysis of tree rings. Samples are obtained by means of an increment borer, a simple metal tube of small diameter that can be driven into a tree to get a core extending from bark to centre. This core is split in the laboratory, and the rings are counted and measured.

Dendrocolaptidae, songbird family, order Passeriformes, consisting of a number of brownish birds of the forest or brushland and found from Mexico through South America. Representative members are the scythebill and the woodcreeper (qq.v.).

dendrogram: see phylogenetic tree.

Deneb (Arabic: "Tail" [of the Swan, Cygnus]), also called ALPHA CYGNI, one of the brightest stars, with an apparent magnitude of 1.26. This star is, at about 1,400 light-years' distance, one of the most remote (thus one of the brightest intrinsically) of the 20 apparently brightest stars. It lies in the northern constellation Cygnus.

Deng Xiaoping, Wade-Giles romanization TENG HSIAO-P'ING (b. Aug. 22, 1904, Szechwan Province, China), Chinese communist leader who was the most powerful figure in the People's Republic of China during the late 1970s and 1980s. He abandoned many orthodox communist doctrines and attempted to incorporate elements of the free-enterprise system into the Chinese economy.

After study in France (1921–24), where he became active in the communist movement, and in the Soviet Union (1925–26), Deng returned to China and became a leading political and military organizer in the Kiangsi Soviet, an autonomous communist enclave in southwestern China that had been established by Mao Zedong. Deng participated in the Long March (1934–35) of the Chinese communists to a new base in northwestern China and was a political officer in the communists' Eighth Route Army throughout its resistance to the Japanese occupation of China during World War II. In 1952, after the communist takeover of China, he became a vice-premier. In 1954 he became secretary-general of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and in 1955 a member of the ruling Politburo.

From the mid-1950s Deng was a major policymaker in both foreign and domestic affairs.

He became closely allied with such pragmatist leaders as Liu Shaoqi, who stressed the use of material incentives and the formation of skilled technical and managerial elites in China's quest for economic development. Deng thus came into increasing conflict with Mao Zedong, who stressed egalitarian policies and revolutionary enthusiasm as the key to economic growth, in opposition to Deng's emphasis on individual self-interest.

Deng was attacked during the Cultural Revolution of the late 1960s by radical supporters of Mao, and he was stripped of his high party and government posts sometime in the years 1967–69, after which he disappeared from public view. In 1973, however, Deng was reinstated under the sponsorship of Premier Zhou Enlai and made deputy premier, and in 1975 he became vice-chairman of the party's Central Committee, a member of its Politburo, and chief of the general staff. As effective head of the government during the months preceding the death of Zhou Enlai, he was widely considered the likely successor to Zhou. However, upon Zhou's death in January 1976, the (Maoist) Gang of Four managed to purge Deng from the leadership once again. It was not until Mao's death in September 1976 and the consequent fall from power of the Gang of Four that Deng was rehabilitated, this time with the assent of Mao's chosen successor to the leadership of China, Hua Guofeng.

By July 1977 Deng had returned to his high posts. He struggled with Hua for control of the party and government. Deng's superior political skills and broad base of support soon led Hua to surrender the premiership and the chairmanship to protégés of Deng in 1980–81. Zhao Ziyang became premier of the government, and Hu Yaobang became general secretary of the CCP; both men looked to Deng for guidance. From this point on, Deng proceeded to carry out his own policies for the economic development of China. Operating through consensus, compromise, and persuasion, Deng engineered important reforms in virtually all aspects of China's political and economic life. He instituted decentralized economic management and rational and flexible long-term planning to achieve efficient and controlled economic growth. China's peasant farmers were given individual control over and responsibility for their production and profits, a policy that resulted in greatly increased agricultural production within a few years of its initiation in 1981. Deng stressed individual responsibility in the making of economic decisions, material incentives as the reward for industry and initiative, and the formation of cadres of skilled, well-educated technicians and managers to spearhead China's development. He freed many industrial enterprises from the control and supervision of the central government and gave factory managers the authority to determine production levels and to pursue profits for their enterprises. In foreign affairs, Deng strengthened China's trade and cultural ties with the West and opened up Chinese enterprises to foreign investment.

Deng eschewed the most conspicuous leadership posts in the party and government. But he was a member of the powerful Standing Committee of the Politburo, and he retained control of the armed forces by virtue of his being chairman of the CCP's Central Military Commission. He was also a vice-chairman of the CCP. Owing both to his posts and to the weight and authority of his voice within the party, he remained China's chief policymaker throughout the 1980s.

In 1987 Deng stepped down from the CCP's Central Committee, thereby relinquishing his seat on the Politburo and its dominant Standing Committee. By so doing he compelled similar retirements by many aged party lead-

ers who had remained opposed or resistant to his reforms. Hu Yaobang was forced to resign his position as general secretary in 1987. Deng resigned his chairmanship of the Military Commission on Nov. 9, 1989, but, though lacking any formal post in the communist leadership, he retained ultimate authority in the party.

He faced a critical test of his leadership in April-June 1989, when student demonstrators in Tiananmen Square in Peking began to demand a more democratic government and to spread the message from Peking to other cities. Deng's support of a military suppression and the continuing trials and, sometimes, executions of student leaders and sympathizers forced many Western analysts to reexamine their notions about the future of China.

dengue, also called **BREKKBONE FEVER**, or **DANDY FEVER**, acute, infectious, mosquito-borne hemorrhagic fever that temporarily is completely incapacitating but is rarely fatal. Besides fever, the disease, caused by a virus, is characterized by an extreme pain in and stiffness of the joints (hence the name "breakbone fever"). It may occur in any country where the carrier mosquitoes breed.

The carrier incriminated throughout most endemic areas is the yellow-fever mosquito, *Aedes aegypti*. The Asian tiger mosquito, *A. albopictus*, is another prominent carrier of the disease. A mosquito becomes infected only if it bites an infected individual (humans and perhaps also certain species of monkey) during the first three days of the victim's illness. It then requires 8 to 11 days to incubate the virus before the disease can be transmitted to another individual. Thereafter, the mosquito remains infected for life. The virus is injected into the skin of the victim in minute droplets of saliva. The spread of dengue is especially unpredictable because there are four serotypes of dengue virus. Infection with one type—though it confers lifetime immunity from reinfection with that type of dengue—does not prevent an individual from being infected by the other three types.

Diagnosis is made on clinical findings; namely, sudden onset, moderately high fever, excruciating joint pains, intense pain behind the eyes, a second rise in temperature after brief remission, and particularly the type of rash and decided reduction in neutrophilic white blood cells. There is no specific therapy; therefore attention is focused on relieving the symptoms. Temporary preventive measures must be taken to segregate suspected as well as diagnosed cases during their first three days of illness and, by screens and repellents, to keep mosquitoes from biting more people.

The potentially fatal fever is prevalent in parts of Asia, and in the late 20th century it spread to areas of South and Central America and to Cuba, Puerto Rico, and other nearby islands. Fundamental in the control of the disease is the destruction of mosquitoes and their breeding places.

Dengyō Daishi: see Saichō.

Denham, Dixon (b. Jan. 1, 1786, London, Eng.—d. May 8, 1828, Freetown, Sierra Leone), English soldier who became one of the early explorers of western Africa.

After serving in the Napoleonic Wars, Denham volunteered in 1821 to join Dr. Walter Oudney and Lieutenant Hugh Clapperton on an official expedition across the Sahara to Bornu, in the Lake Chad basin. After enduring danger and privation, they arrived at Kuka, the capital of Bornu, on Feb. 17, 1823. In December 1823, while Clapperton and Oudney set out on a journey westward, Denham explored the shores of Lake Chad and the lower courses of the Waubé, Chari, and Logone



Dixon Denham, detail from an oil painting by T. Phillips, 1826; in the National Portrait Gallery, London

By courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery, London

rivers. Returning to England in 1825, Denham became a celebrity. He was promoted to lieutenant colonel and appointed superintendent of liberated slaves in West Africa in 1827. The next year he was made governor of Sierra Leone, where he died of fever.

Denham, Sir James Steuart, 4TH BARONET, original name (until 1773) **JAMES STEUART** (b. Oct. 21, 1712, Edinburgh, Scot.—d. Nov. 26, 1780, Edinburgh), Scottish economist whose exposition of mercantilist views showed a sophistication ahead of his time.

Denham was the son of Sir James Steuart, a former lord advocate of Scotland. He was educated at the University of Edinburgh (1724–25). In the course of continental travels following his qualification as a lawyer (1735), he became embroiled in the Jacobite cause. Denham's involvement in the 1745 rebellion of the Stuart pretender to the throne forced him to remain in exile until 1763, when he finally returned to Edinburgh. He then retired to Coltness. In 1773 his father obtained the estates of his uncle, Sir Archibald Denham, on the condition that he and his father adopt Denham as a surname. In 1780 he succeeded his father in two baronetcies.

His chief work, *Inquiry into the Principles of Political Economy* (1767), is probably the first systematic treatise on economics in English. As an exponent of mercantilist economics, Denham accorded government a key role in the economic development of society, particularly in the management of population and employment. Government intervention was also desirable, in his view, to bring about market equilibrium. Consistent with his mercantilist views, Denham believed that an industrializing country would experience loss of international markets because of rising wages; thus, he believed that reliance upon internal markets was important. His theory of the role of money in economic growth remains of interest to contemporary economists.

Denham, Sir John (b. 1615, Dublin, Ire.—d. March 10, 1669, London, Eng.), poet who



Sir John Denham, engraving

By courtesy of the trustees of the British Museum; photograph, J.R. Freeman & Co. Ltd.

established as a new English genre the leisurely meditative poem describing a particular landscape.

Educated at the University of Oxford, Denham was admitted to the bar, but he was already actively writing. He had translated six books of the *Aeneid*, parts of which were later printed; but he made his reputation with *The Sophy*, a blank-verse historical tragedy acted in 1641, and with *Cooper's Hill*, a poem published in 1642. During the English Civil Wars, he was engaged at home and abroad in the cause of Charles II. Made a knight of the Bath and elected to the Royal Society after the Restoration in 1660, he also served as a member of Parliament. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Denham's poetry is essentially didactic. His strength is considered to lie in his thought, particularly his neatly turned expressions of ethical and moral truisms. Restoration and 18th-century critics praised him, together with Edmund Waller, for the development of the closed heroic couplet (a couplet rhyming *aa* and containing a complete idea, not dependent upon the preceding or following couplet). Denham greatly increased the popularity of that style with *Cooper's Hill*, a new type of descriptive landscape verse that was imitated by English poets for the next 100 years.

denial of Not-Being (philosophy): see Not-Being, denial of.

Denikin, Anton Ivanovich (b. Dec. 16 [Dec. 4, Old Style], 1872, near Warsaw, Pol., Russian Empire—d. Aug. 8, 1947, Ann Arbor, Mich., U.S.), general who led the anti-Bolshevik ("White") forces on the southern front during the Russian Civil War (1918–20).

A professional in the Imperial Russian Army, Denikin served in the Russo-Japanese War (1904–05) and in World War I (1914–16). After the February Revolution of 1917, which overthrew the Romanov dynasty, he became chief of staff to the provisional government's commander in chief, Mikhail V. Alekseyev, but was quickly disillusioned by that government's inability to maintain discipline in the army. He was dismissed from his post in July for political reasons.

Placed in command of the western front, Denikin came into close contact with General Lavr G. Kornilov, then the Russian supreme military commander, and in August 1917 the two were arrested for conspiring to overthrow the provisional government and establish a military dictatorship. A month after the Bolsheviks' October (Old Style) coup d'état, however, they escaped from prison and fled southward to the Don region, where Kornilov assumed command of the White Army recently formed by Alekseyev. Kornilov was killed in April 1918, and Denikin became commander of the White forces in southern Russia. By the beginning of 1919 he controlled the northern Caucasus; in May he launched a major offensive, advancing through the Ukraine toward Moscow. In October, however, the Red Army defeated him at Oryol (250 miles [402 km] from Moscow) and forced him to retreat with his disintegrating army to Novorossiysk; the remainder of his army was then evacuated to the Crimea (March 1920). In April Denikin turned over his command to General Pyotr N. Wrangel and settled in France, where he wrote his memoirs, *Ocherki russkoy smuty*, 5 vol. (1923–27; "History of the Civil Strife in Russia"). He immigrated to the United States in 1945.

Deniliquin, chief town of the fertile southern Riverina region, south-central New South Wales, Australia, on the Edwards River (a branch of the Murray), 30 miles (50 km) from the Victoria border. Established in 1845 by Benjamin Boyd as a personal holding, it was made a town in 1848 under the name Sandhills. Two years later it was officially gazetted

as Deniliquin, a corruption of the Aboriginal term *deniloocon*, meaning "wrestlers' ground." It became a busy crossing point for livestock and was declared a municipality in 1868. It is now the commercial and administrative centre for the Berriquin, Denimein, and Wakool irrigation districts. The region is well known as merino sheep stud country and also supports beef cattle, fat lambs, rice, fruits, tobacco, and grains. The town's products include butter, cheese, cordials, processed seed, brick and plaster, fabricated iron and steel, and timber. Deniliquin lies at the junction of the Riverina and Cobb highways; it is also the terminus of a rail line from Echuca and is connected by air to Sydney (374 miles [602 km] northeast) and Melbourne. Pop. (1986) 7,566.

denim, durable twill-woven fabric used principally for work and leisure clothing. The name is said to have originated in the French *serge de Nîmes*. Denim is yarn-dyed and mill-finished and is usually all-cotton, although considerable quantities are of a cotton-synthetic fibre mixture. Denim is mainly indigo or blue but is also produced in other colours and in stripes and various patterns. Traditionally used for ranch, farm, work, and sea-going attire, denim has become an important children's-wear item and is used for casual wear by both sexes of all ages. See also jeans.

Denis, SAINT, Denis also spelled **DENYS**, Latin **DIONYSIUS** (b. Rome?—d. 258?, Paris; feast day: Western church, October 9; Eastern church, October 3), first bishop of Paris and patron saint of France.

According to St. Gregory of Tours's 6th-century *Historia Francorum*, Denis was one of seven bishops sent to Gaul to convert the people in the reign of the Roman emperor Decius. Little is known of his life except that he became bishop of Paris and was later martyred during the persecution of Christians by the Roman emperor Valerian. In 626 his relics were moved to the Benedictine abbey at St. Denis, near Paris. In the 8th century a passage in Gregory's work was misinterpreted as stating that Denis had been sent to France by Pope St. Clement I of Rome (c. 90). According to a spurious tale recorded by the 9th-century Hilduin, abbot of St. Denis, after decapitation Denis's corpse, led by an angel, walked from Montmartre to the abbey church of St. Denis. He has thus been represented in art.

Denis THE LITTLE: see *Dionysius Exiguus*.

Denis, Maurice (b. Nov. 25, 1870, Granville, Fr.—d. Nov. 13, 1943, Paris), French painter, one of the leading artists and theoreticians of the Symbolist movement.

Denis studied at the Académie Julian (1888) under Jules Lefebvre and at the École des Beaux-Arts. Reacting against the naturalistic tendencies of Impressionism, Denis fell under the influence of the work of Paul Gauguin, whose style was also much-admired by Denis's fellow students Paul Sérusier, Édouard Vuillard, Pierre Bonnard, and Ker Xavier Roussel. With these friends, Denis joined in the Symbolist movement and its later offshoot, the group of painters collectively called the Nabis (q.v.). The quasi-mystical attitude of the Nabis was perfectly suited to Denis's highly religious nature. In 1890 Denis expressed the underlying principle of much modern painting in the following often-quoted words: "It should be remembered that a picture—before being a warhorse, a nude, or an anecdote of some sort—is essentially a flat surface covered with colours assembled in a certain order."

Later, however, after visiting Italy, Denis became greatly influenced by the works of the great Italian fresco painters of the 14th and 15th centuries and began to place emphasis on subject matter, traditional perspective, and modeling, as in "Homage à Cézanne" (1901; Musée National d'Art Moderne, Paris). Denis's monumental mural decorations are to

be seen in many French churches as well as on the ceiling of the Champs Élysées Theatre in Paris. In 1919 he, along with Georges De-



"The Muses," oil painting by Maurice Denis, 1893; in the Musée National d'Art Moderne, Paris

By courtesy of the Musée National d'Art Moderne, Paris; permission S.P.A.D.E.M. 1971, by French Reproduction Rights, Inc.; photograph, Marc Garanger

vallières, founded the Studios of Sacred Art. His work was one of the chief forces in the revival of religious art in France.

Denishawn School of Dancing and Related Arts, dance school and company founded in 1915 by Ruth St. Denis and her husband, Ted Shawn. Considered a fountainhead of American modern dance, the Denishawn organization systematically promoted nonballetic dance movement and fostered such leading modern dancers as Martha Graham, Doris Humphrey, and Charles Weidman. Because St. Denis and Shawn believed that all dance techniques were valid and instructive, the school offered classes in Oriental, Spanish, and primitive dance; the fundamentals of ballet; their own innovative techniques; and, later, the modern-dance techniques that had been developed in Europe by Rudolf Laban and Émile Jaques-Dalcroze. Branches of the school were established in New York City and other American cities. The company's repertoire, choreographed by St. Denis and Shawn, ranged from unadorned solos to opulent productions with Japanese, Hindu, Middle Eastern, or American Indian themes. The Denishawn dancers frequently toured the United States and performed in the Orient (1925–26). The organization disbanded in 1931 after St. Denis and Shawn separated.

Denison, city, Grayson county, north-central Texas, U.S. Denison is situated near Sherman and Lake Texoma (impounded on the Red River by Denison Dam) near the Oklahoma



Birthplace of President Dwight D. Eisenhower, Denison, Texas

By courtesy of the Texas Highway Department

border, 73 miles (117 km) north of Dallas. Originally a stop on the Southern Overland Mail Route, it was organized by the Missouri-Kansas-Texas Railroad in 1872 as a division point and named for George Denison, a railroad director. Its economy is basically agricultural, augmented by light industry (chiefly clothing, aluminum, and plastic products), transportation, and tourism based on the Lake Texoma resort area, Hagerman National Wildlife Refuge, and Eisenhower State Park. The birthplace (1890) of President Dwight D. Eisenhower is preserved as a state historic site. Inc. 1891. Pop. (1990) city, 21,505; Sherman-Denison MSA, 95,021.

denitrifying bacteria, microorganisms whose action results in the conversion of nitrates in soil to free atmospheric nitrogen, thus depleting soil fertility and reducing agricultural productivity. *Thiobacillus denitrificans*, *Micrococcus denitrificans*, and some species of *Serratia*, *Pseudomonas*, and *Achromobacter* are implicated as denitrifiers. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* can, under anaerobic conditions (as in swampy or water-logged soils), reduce the amount of fixed nitrogen (as fertilizer) by up to 50 percent. Without denitrification, however, the Earth's supply of nitrogen would eventually accumulate in the oceans, since nitrates are highly soluble and are continuously leached from the soil into nearby bodies of water. See also nitrogen cycle.

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Denizli, city, southwestern Turkey. It lies near the Çürüksu River, which is a tributary of the Menderes River. Set among the gardens at the foot of Mount Gökbek (7,572 feet [2,308 m]), Denizli inherited the economic position of ancient Laodicea ad Lycum, 4 miles (6 km) away, when that town was deserted during wars between the Byzantines and the Seljuq Turks in the 12th century. By the 14th century, as Lâdik (Lâdiq), Denizli had emerged as an important Turkish town noted for its woven and embroidered products and its luxuriant gardens. It was ravaged by earthquakes in the 18th and 19th centuries. Denizli is linked by a branch line to the Dinar-Izmir railway.

In the surrounding agricultural area the cultivation of cotton, cereals, figs, and tobacco, along with livestock raising, are the principal activities. North of Denizli is Pamukkale, ancient Hierapolis, a resort around which limestone deposits from the hot springs have formed beautiful cascades and basins. Pop. (1985) city, 169,130.

Denmark, officially **KINGDOM OF DENMARK**, Danish **KONGERIGET DANMARK**, Faeroese **KONGARÍKIDH DANMARK**, Greenlandic **DANMARKIP NÁLAGAUVFIA**, a small country occupying a peninsula extending northward from the centre of continental western Europe, and covering an area of 16,638 square miles (43,093 square km), excluding Greenland and the Faeroe Islands, which are self-governing dependencies within the Danish realm. The capital is Copenhagen.

Denmark extends for about 210 miles (335 km) from north to south and for about 180 miles (290 km) from east to west, when the eastern island of Bornholm is included. The country is a physical, cultural, and commercial bridge between Scandinavia and central Europe. Denmark's only landward neighbour is Germany, which lies to the south and with which it shares a border of only 42 miles (68 km). Denmark's 4,500-mile (7,300-kilometre)